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IGR TRANSLITERATION OF RUSSIAN

The AGI Translation Office has adopted the essential features of Cyrillic transliteration recommended by the U. S. Department of the Interior, Board on Geographic Names, Washington D. C.

However, the AGI Translation Office recommends the following modifications:

1. Ye initially, after vowels, and after Ъ, Ы
Customary usage calls for "ie" in many names, e.g., SOVIET KIEV, DNIEPER, etc.; or "ye", e.g., BYELORUSSIA, where "e" follows consonants. "e" with dieresis in Russian should be given as "yo".
2. Omitted if preceding a "y", for example, Arkhangelsky (not "iy"; not "ii").
3. Generally omitted.

NOTE: Well-known place and personal names that have wide acceptance will be used. Some translations may include elements of previous German transliteration from the Russian; this occurs in IGR most commonly in maps and lists of references. The reader's attention is called to the following variations between German and English systems which may cause confusion when trying to check back to original Russian sources.

Alphabet	transliteration
А	а
Б	б
В	в
Г	г
Д	д
Е	е, ye ⁽¹⁾
Ё	ё, yё
Ж	ж
З	з
И	и ⁽²⁾
Й	й
К	к
Л	л
М	м
Н	н
О	о
П	п
Р	р
С	с
Т	т
У	у
Ф	ф
Х	х
Ц	ts
Ч	ch
Ш	sh
Щ	shch
Ъ	" ⁽³⁾
Ы	y
Ь	y ⁽³⁾
Э	е
Ю	yu
Я	va

German	English
w	v
s	z
ch	kh
tz	ts
tsch	ch
sch	sh
schtsch	shch
ja	ya
ju	yu

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SEISMOLOGY IN THE U.S.S.R.

By

Peter Dehlinger

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INTRODUCTION

Seismology has been developing rapidly in the U. S. S. R. since 1945. Even a casual review of Soviet literature indicates that the U. S. S. R. appears to be more advanced in certain phases of seismology than are other countries. A systematic review of Soviet literature in seismology is therefore desirable. The purpose of this review is to establish a plateau from which Soviet seismology can be viewed. This review attempts to summarize Soviet published literature in seismology as of about December, 1959.

Approximately 330 articles and books, listed in the references, were used in this review. Most of the referenced material was available in English as abstracts or translations of the entire paper. Some, however, were available only as titles or were scanned briefly in the original Russian.

It appears that the Soviets are attempting to extend basic and applied knowledge in every phase of seismology. This approach has resulted in a systematic, well coordinated, and all-inclusive program in seismology that incorporates sizeable government agencies, a large number of highly trained scientists, and funds for operation which have been estimated to be considerably larger than those expended in the United States.

The major research and investigations in Soviet seismology are conducted at the Institute of Earth Physics (formerly the Geophysical Institute), and its field stations, of the U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences. All phases of seismology are being studied at this Institute by a large staff of highly trained scientists, including more than 100 geophysicists, physicists and mathematicians. The Institute also awards doctorate degrees in seismology. Other Soviet organizations are active in seismology, but to a lesser extent. These include the Council on Seismology of the U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences, the Institute of Geophysics of the Georgian S. S. R. Academy of Sciences, Moscow State University, Leningrad State University, the Leningrad Division of the Mathematical Institute of the U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences, the All-Union Research Institute of Geophysical Methods of Prospecting, the All-Union Institute of Methods and Techniques for Prospecting, other organizations under the Ministry of Geology and Conservation of Natural Resources, and certain republic academies of science.

Among the main problems of Soviet seismology are the study of the physical properties of

various types of seismic waves propagated in different media, especially layered media; the determination of criteria for recording and identifying wave groups; and the development of instruments to record, analyze, and process data. The most significant Soviet developments during the last fifteen years include mathematical analyses of wave propagation, especially spherical waves reflected and refracted from layered media; the mechanism at the source of an earthquake; frequency analyses of seismograms to differentiate wave group on the basis of frequency content; utilization of amplitudes on seismograms, particularly in explosion seismology, to determine absorption coefficients in rocks; construction of "dynamic" travel time curves for data interpretations, which includes wave amplitudes and frequency spectra in addition to the conventional arrival times and velocity data; development of the refraction-correlation shooting procedure, which has a higher resolving power than conventional refraction techniques; utilization of seismometer arrays to improve signal-to-noise ratios, especially for recording distant explosions; seismic zoning relating seismicity quantitatively with tectonic activity, which has application in locating new engineering sites, industrial plants, and even new cities; and development of significant approaches for indirectly detecting underground explosions. Other advances, though less striking, have been made in nearly all phases of seismology. Clearly, the Soviets are major contributors in seismology.

For the purposes of this review, Soviet seismology has been grouped into four subjects: 1) theoretical and laboratory investigations, 2) earthquake seismology, 3) explosion seismology, and 4) instrumental seismology. Emphasis has been placed on principles, concepts, and techniques which the Soviets are using and developing, not on descriptions of particular earthquakes or prospecting areas. Under instrumental seismology, the broad instrumental developments only are discussed, not the details of individual instruments.

SOVIET RESEARCH AND INVESTIGATIONS IN SEISMOLOGY

Soviet research and investigations in seismology have been described in detail in the open literature and at numerous technical meetings. Reports of these meetings provide a significant addition to the published literature.

Theoretical and Laboratory Investigations in Seismology

Soviet research and investigations in theoretical seismology and in various types of lab-

latory investigations are significant and effective. Pertinent investigations are indicated in the following sections.

Elasticity Theory

A limited number of Soviet papers have been published on the mathematical theory of elasticity during the last five years. Most of these were published in the *Izvestiya, Seriya Geofizicheskaya; Doklady; and Prikladnaya i Mekhanika*; all of the U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences. The principal authors in elasticity theory have been G. A. Skuridin, N. V. Zvolinsky, G. I. Petrashen', A. A. Gvozdev, and Ye. I. Shemiakin.

Dynamic elasticity problems using asymptotic methods and boundary conditions for non-analytic solutions have been investigated by Skuridin [1-4] and co-workers. Petrashen' and co-workers have investigated the dynamic theory of elasticity for media containing cylindrical and spherical boundaries [5], and have also investigated asymptotic representations of cylindrical functions [6]. Other significant papers are by Shemiakin, on the propagation of disturbances in imperfectly elastic media [7], and by Mikhlin, on investigations of elasticity equations for non-homogeneous media [8].

Wave Propagation Theory

Approximately 300 Soviet articles and books were noted on wave propagation theory. Available were complete translations of numerous papers, and abstracts of approximately 100.

Soviet knowledge on wave propagation theory is perhaps best indicated by the book of L. M. Brekhovskikh [9], "Waves in Layered Media" (1957). This is a major contribution containing extensive analyses not found in the Western literature. This book, which has been translated into English, contains numerous diagrams and equations and is written for the mathematical seophysicist. It lists 238 references; 131 to Western and Japanese authors, and 107 to Soviet authors or materials translated into Russian. The Soviet works cited are significant, despite the large number of non-Soviet references.

Brekhovskikh appears to be the most prominent Soviet contributor to wave propagation theory; others are Yu. V. Riznichenko, B. N. Shul'kin, K. I. Ogurtsov, G. I. Petrashen', V. I. Selys-Borok, N. I. Davydova, N. V. Zvolinsky, and I. S. Berzon.

Body Wave Propagation: Brekhovskikh has published on wave propagation since about 1946. Much of his research is described in his book, "Waves in Layered Media" [9], which treats, length, plane and spherical waves propagated across layered media.

Petrashen' [10] has edited a three-volume monograph, "Data on Quantitative Studies of the Dynamics of Seismic Waves". It includes tables, graphs, explanatory text, and discussions of the dynamic properties of seismic waves which are required for construction of theoretical seismograms corresponding to isotropic layered media. Additional tables pertain to functions for the initial point source, to conversion and reflection coefficients for waves reflected from the earth's surface, the formation of head waves, and complex forms of the reflection and refraction coefficients of transverse SH waves. Methods of measuring amplitude-phase-frequency characteristics on seismograms are also discussed. The purpose of these volumes was to facilitate identification of arrivals of various waves on seismograms. Petrashen' has also described the Lamb problem for an elastic semi-space [11] and has investigated body wave propagation in a medium with dipping layers [12]. At a symposium in Moscow ("Symposium 1; Questions on the Dynamic Theory of Seismic Wave Propagation," Gostoptekhizdat, Moscow-Leningrad, 1957), he discussed the quantitative theory of reflected and head waves generated in stratified media with plane parallel interfaces.

Riznichenko has published on wave propagation since 1938. Most of his papers pertain to seismic velocity determination in isotropic and heterogeneous media. Riznichenko's more recent studies pertain to models, discussed further in this review under "Ultrasonic Models".

Ivakin has developed a theory on the dynamic similarity between ultrasonic models and seismic phenomena [13]. He has also discussed propagation in a liquid medium containing a thin high-velocity layer [14], in which the propagation of PPP and PSP waves were investigated with ultrasonic models. The results were presented in terms of layer thickness and rigidity, and in terms of the energy ratio PSP/PPP. In another paper he investigated the micro- and macro-structure of waves in heterogeneous media [15].

Ogurtsov and co-workers have discussed propagation in an elastic half-space and in an elastic half-space with axial symmetry. More recently Ogurtsov and Burova have investigated amplitudes of longitudinal and transverse waves [16] at the boundary of an ideal elastic half-space for different values of Poisson's ratio. Theoretical seismograms can be constructed for any source distance and arbitrary pulse. Amplitudes of the longitudinal and transverse waves and their ratios were calculated for large distances.

Zvolinsky has investigated both reflected and refracted waves produced at the boundary [17] between two elastic media. Reflected waves PP and PS, and head waves PPP, PSP, and PSS near the critical angle were discussed. Beyond the crit-

ical angle the reflected waves were substantially altered and asymptotic formulas were obtained which apply in the vicinity of the wave front. These formulas are simple enough for practical applications. It was found that amplitudes of the individual waves depend not only on the wave type, the properties of the media, and the amplitude of the incident wave, but also on the wave form. In an earlier paper Zvolinskiy [18] and a co-worker investigated head waves generated at a surface between two horizontal elastic media about a vertical line source.

Davydova [19, 20], investigated the generation and propagation of waves produced in an elastic medium by a moving source. Theoretical seismograms were computed for vertical and horizontal components of displacement, where propagation is in a thin layer within a medium of different velocity. The vertical amplitude was found to vary not only with time, but also to change in sign.

Surface Wave Theory: More than 50 Soviet papers on surface waves have been written in the last 10 years, and demonstrate considerable knowledge of surface wave theory. Soviet command of surface waves as of 1958 was summarized by V. M. Arkhangel'skaya [21] in two reports on the 1st and 2nd Extended Seminars of the Department of Seismology and Seismic Service, Institute of Earth Physics, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences, for the Study of Surface Waves. From the many papers given at these seminars it would appear that Soviet observations of surface waves are several years behind the United States, particularly for recording of very long-period waves, but that a considerable increase in Soviet research can be expected in this direction.

During the 1940's significant Soviet investigations on surface waves, particularly Rayleigh waves, were made by V. G. Gogoladze and N. A. Naymark. Gogoladze's main paper is a theoretical treatment of Rayleigh wave generation [22]. Naymark wrote 5 mathematical papers on the roots of period equations of elastic vibrations in layers overlying a half-space [23-26].

During the 1950's, the principal investigators of surface wave theory have been V. I. Keylis-Borok, V. M. Zvolinskiy, T. B. Yanovskaya, and G. I. Petrashen'. Surface wave investigations concerning mostly earthquake seismograms appear in this review under "Surface Waves" in "Earthquake Seismology".

Keylis-Borok's doctoral dissertation was entitled "Interfering Seismic Waves in a Multi-Layered Elastic Medium" (Geophysical Institute, 1953). He wrote several other papers on surface wave propagation in a multi-layered half-space, investigations of period equations, dispersion, attenuation of surface waves with distance traveled, and investigations of formulas describing the simultaneous arrival of

Rayleigh and Love waves. The more significant papers by Keylis-Borok on surface-wave propagation are listed in the references [27-32].

Zvolinskiy has published on the mathematical theory of surface-wave propagation since 1940. Among his recent papers [21] are three presented at the 1st and 2nd Extended Seminars at the Department of Seismology and Seismic Service, Institute of Earth Physics, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences, for the Study of Surface Waves. At the 1st Seminar Zvolinskiy discussed basic problems in the theory of surface waves, including wave shape, amplitude decrease with distance from the boundary, roots of dispersion equations, dispersion equations for multi-layered media, and possible relations between source motion and resultant surface waves. At the 2nd Seminar he discussed dispersion curves for Love waves with double layers over a half-space for a wide range of velocity contrasts, and also applied variation methods to Love wave dispersion equations.

Yanovskaya has described formulas for displacement of Rayleigh and Love waves traversing over a half-space from a stationary dipole source with a moment in two different papers [33], including one presented at the 1st Extended Seminar on Surface Waves [21]. Amplitude ratios of the Love to the horizontal component of Rayleigh waves were related to source motion. This analysis is described in this review under "Focal Parameters and Characteristics" in "Earthquake Seismology". In a theoretical paper at the 2nd Extended Seminar on Surface Waves [21], Yanovskaya described interference of waves and resultant dispersion. Dispersion curves were investigated for several different cases, including a wedge-shaped layer and multilayers, in each case overlying a heterogeneous half-space.

Petrashen' has published on interference phenomena in a two-layered medium and in three papers on interference in thin plane parallel layers [35].

Reflection and Refraction of Seismic Waves: Many Soviet papers concern reflections and refractions of seismic waves, particularly spherical waves, from multi-layered media with non-plane boundaries. Brekhovskikh has made most of the mathematical analyses of reflections and refractions, particularly of spherical waves from multi-layered media [9]. His earliest papers on reflection of spherical waves [36, 37] from plane boundaries were published in 1948. Brekhovskikh has made theoretical analyses of reflections of spherical waves from layered media, particularly for series of layers and frequencies which result in strong reflections, and for layers and frequencies which result in minimum reflections.

Berzon has written voluminously on reflection

and refraction of waves since 1942, although most of her papers are experimental rather than mathematical in content. The more recent papers by Berzon are listed in the references [38-43]. Zvolinskiy has published [17] on the reflected and head waves originating at a plane boundary between two elastic media, and the analyses include the simultaneous arrivals of reflected and head waves and the formation of interfering waves superimposed on a background of other recorded waves. Cases of different combinations of velocity contrasts of longitudinal and transverse waves in the two media were investigated. It was found that when a spherical P wave arrived at a plane boundary between two media, two reflected waves, PP and PS, two refracted waves, PP and PS, and five different head waves are produced. An approximate description was given of the transformed refracted (PS) wave and of the head waves.

Fedorov has investigated the refraction of seismic waves at curved boundaries [44], with results illustrated on dynamic travel-time curves, i. e., travel-time curves including amplitude, direction of motion, and frequency spectra of the waves, as well as arrival-times. This investigation resulted in a dissertation [45] for a Doctor of Science degree entitled "Kinematic and Dynamic Properties of Seismic Waves Refracted at Curvilinear Boundaries", May 1958.

Tsepelev in two articles treated the effects of boundaries involving velocity and density gradients on elastic wave propagation [46, 47]. Such boundaries act as reflecting surfaces, and computations for the corresponding reflection and refraction coefficients were given. Wave forms of the reflected and refracted waves were determined and shown to differ from the incident wave form. Malinovskaya has treated the dynamic characteristics of longitudinal and transverse reflected waves in the range of incidence angles [48, 49] from 10 to 80 degrees. Theoretical seismographs were constructed for these reflection cases.

Chekin has published three interesting papers on the reflection and refraction of waves. In the first, changes in the waves reflected and refracted from three plane parallel layers were computed for five different shapes of incident wave [50] and were presented graphically. In the second, approximate formulas were derived describing the spectrum of a wave front that resulted from an incident longitudinal spherical wave reflected and refracted at a plate [51]. The formulas pertaining to the spectra were found to apply for every form of incident wave, not only spherical waves. In the third paper it was shown that in non-homogeneous media waves can be reflected and refracted from zones containing a velocity gradient [52]. Corresponding coefficients of reflection

and refraction were introduced.

Seismic Screening or Seismic Masking: Berzon and Yepinat'yeva published a significant paper in 1950 on the masking effect of a thin high-velocity layer on waves refracted along deeper layers [53]. This concept was not new, but these investigations formulated more clearly the effect of thin high-velocity layers. Although neither Berzon nor Yepinat'yeva have apparently published on this subject since, Petrashen' analyzed the masking problem mathematically in 1954 and proposed methods for obtaining solutions on the masking effect of thin layers [54]. Another mathematical analysis of the masking effect [55] was made by Babich and Alekseyev.

An important application of the masking effect is that refracted waves which have traveled below a thin high-velocity layer can possibly be received at the surface when the wave length is long compared to the layer thickness.

Absorption of seismic waves: Absorption of elastic waves has been investigated intensively in the U. S. S. R. As Berzon has mentioned [56], absorption used in conjunction with velocity data provides for more detailed geologic information than do only velocities and layer thicknesses. Thus, rocks and layers of similar velocities but different absorption properties can be identified and separated. The principal Soviet investigators on absorption of seismic waves have been Yu. V. Riznichenko, B. N. Ivakin, Ye. V. Karus, and A. M. Yepinat'yeva.

An early (1952) Soviet paper on absorption coefficients determined from seismic waves [57] is by Yepinat'yeva. Riznichenko has developed an equation [58] which describes amplitude changes for propagation through different media with boundary conditions that affect the behavior of the waves. This equation includes terms for distance traveled, the spreading of the wave front, and an absorption term for imperfect elasticity. The paper includes more than 25 cases of different waves, and solutions are given with characteristics of the resultant wave pattern.

Ivakin, in two publications, described mechanical and electrical models for studying absorption [59, 60] in elastic media. These models allow for elastic afterworking, for internal friction, and for residual deformation. Equations of motion corresponding to these three mechanisms were derived, where absorption is considered to be due to imperfect elasticity but not to be a function of the density of the medium. Calculations for each model also included, as a function of frequency, the velocity of propagation, absorption, and acoustic impedance. Absorption was investigated for both pulse and sinusoidal sources. The treatment is mathematical.

Karus, Vice Director of the Institute of Earth Physics, wrote his Candidate's thesis on absorption. It was entitled "Study of Absorbing Properties of Rocks by the Seismo-Acoustic Method" and was accepted by the Geophysical Institute in 1951. Karus has continued these absorption studies and has investigated absorption coefficients and logarithmic decrements of various types of rocks [61] at frequencies from 100 to 4,000 kc, using amplitude-phase measurements. Karus concluded from these measurements that rocks can be differentiated on the basis of absorption. Observational investigations on absorption have been reported by Kosminskaya [62-63], which concern correlation of amplitudes and travel-time curves of seismic phases.

Diffraction of Seismic Waves: Soviet analyses of diffracted waves have been developed as far as elsewhere. The principal Soviet investigators have been L. M. Brekhovskikh, G. I. Petrashev', T. I. Oblogina, G. A. Skuridin, and Ye. I. Gal'perin. An early Soviet investigator was S. L. Sobolev.

Brekhovskikh has investigated mathematically the diffraction of waves from an irregular surface [64]. Makarov and Petrashev' have investigated diffraction of both acoustic and electromagnetic waves by a sphere [65]. Oblogina has investigated the dynamic properties of seismic waves diffracted at the border of a vertical contact [66, 67]. She computed amplitudes and phases of individual waves both for diffracted plane waves and for three-dimensional cases, where the vertical and horizontal components of the diffracted waves were determined. The wave fronts and travel-time curves of the diffracted waves were analyzed for a vertical contact in which the wave traveled from a higher into a lower velocity medium. From mathematical analyses and numerous seismograms, travel-time curves were constructed for a vertical contact and for a wedge-shaped layer. The latter problem was studied with methods previously suggested by V. I. Smirnov and S. L. Sobolev. It was established that minima on the forward and backward travel-time curves of diffracted waves fall at the same point on the refraction profile. It was also found that the phase angle of the diffracted wave becomes reversed at that distance on the travel-time curve where the diffracted and refracted waves arrive simultaneously.

Skuridin's dissertation was on diffraction of elastic waves. This study led to two publications on the mathematical analyses of diffraction theory [68, 69], including diffraction from a fault. Formulas were presented to help distinguish diffracted from the reflected and refracted waves.

Petrashev' and co-workers have described at a Leningrad State University Symposium [70]

in 1957 a series method to determine wave diffraction from angular regions. Other Soviet papers have also appeared on diffracted seismic waves. A recent summary of methods for identifying diffracted waves and differentiating them from reflected and refracted waves appears in Chapter III of the book by Puzyrev, "Interpretation of Reflection Shooting Data" (1959) [71].

Propagation in Non-Homogeneous Media: Many Soviet investigators have studied wave propagation in heterogeneous media. Among the first was V. G. Gogoladze, others include A. S. Alekseyev, B. N. Ivakin, V. M. Babich, I. S. Berzon, and L. M. Brekhovskikh. Propagation in heterogeneous media is included in Brekhovskikh's book [9].

Alekseyev's dissertation was on boundary problems of elastic wave propagation in a non-homogeneous medium (Leningrad State University, 1955). He also investigated Lamb-type problems in non-homogeneous media [72]. Babich wrote his dissertation on the equations of motion for a non-homogeneous elastic medium (Leningrad State University, 1954) and later applied Hadamard's method to plastic propagation in non-homogeneous media [73].

Ivakin has made a mathematical analysis of elastic wave propagation in heterogeneous media consisting of micro- and macro-structures [74]. The problem was approached from the theory of "four poles" used in electrical communications. An analogous theory was developed for elastic propagation along an infinite wave-guide.

Berzon has discussed amplitude and phase peculiarities of waves propagated in vertically dipping beds [75]. It was proposed that by analyzing amplitude and phase changes in waves traveling across vertically dipping beds, such wave changes may be more diagnostic of the location of the boundaries between layers than are travel-time curves alone. Using higher frequency waves increases the resolving power of this technique.

Seismic Displacements and Energies in Wave Fronts: Displacements and energies in wave fronts have been considered in several Soviet publications, including Chapters I and IV of Brekhovskikh's book, "Waves in Layered Media" [9]. He also treated mathematically the theory of displacements for spherical waves with total internal reflection [76]. In two papers, Babich analyzed mathematically the amplitudes of wave fronts [77, 78], applying the beam method of Hadamard used in geometric optics, which permitted calculations of amplitudes of non-steady elastic waves propagated in heterogeneous media. Basic formulas were derived and solutions determined. Monakhov has described displacements and polarizations of transverse seismic waves [79].

Theoretical amplitude calculations of plane stationary waves propagated across a series of high-velocity layers of finite thickness were made by Parkhomenko [80]. Part I of these investigations concerns experimental measurements; Part II, the theoretical analyses, which were in good agreement with the experimental data. Experimental investigations of energies in seismic body waves [81] at epicentral distances of more than 1,000 km have been reported by Kogan. The energy in such waves is described as a function of the distance propagated, absorption in the medium, and wave form.

Wave Motion as a Function of Source Motion: Most Soviet papers on this subject concern wave motion as a function of earthquake source displacements. These are discussed in the section on "Focal Parameters and Characteristics" under "Earthquake Seismology".

Keylis-Borok has related strains produced in the ground at some distance from a source to a point source with moment [82]. Asymmetrical faults were represented by a dipole with a moment to which a simple force was added. Seven source motions were described as combinations of point sources and simple forces. Karus and Pasechnik have described wave motion produced by a harmonic source [83].

In a significant paper, Ogurtsov presented numerical solutions from general equations of elasticity to evaluate the relative magnitudes of individual waves in the spectrum of source movements [84]. Maximum amplitudes of waves at various distances from the source were determined and shown graphically.

In two papers, Konstantinova has summarized material collected during rock bursts of April 7, 1954 in a coal mine in the Donets Basin. The first paper concerned an analysis of the mechanism of rock bursts [85], and the second treated the form of the elastic impulse produced by the bursts [86].

Laboratory Investigations

Soviet seismologists have extensive laboratory programs for investigations with ultrasonic seismic models, determinations of rock properties under varying conditions of stress and temperature, and frequency analyses of spectra on seismograms. Most of these laboratory investigations are being conducted at the Institute of Earth Physics, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences.

Ultrasonic Models: The Soviets have developed ultrasonic models significantly during the past 15 years. Much of this work is summarized in a 1957 article by Riznichenko [87], in which it is claimed that development of ultrasonic models in the U. S. S. R. had been carried as far as in other countries, but that the Soviets have ap-

plied seismic models to a greater number of problems.

Soviet model investigations concern direct wave and surface wave propagation in a two-dimensional half-space; simulation of earthquake foci at various depths; head wave studies; propagation in layered media involving different velocities and propagation in quasi-anisotropic layers; studies of the screening or masking effect of thin high-velocity layers on refracted waves; the reflection and diffraction of waves; and other problems [87].

The principal Soviet investigators with ultrasonic models are Yu. V. Riznichenko, B. N. Ivakin, I. S. Parkhomenko, N. V. Zvolinsky, V. I. Keylis-Borok, F. I. Monakhov, M. P. Volarovich, and O. G. Shamina.

Riznichenko essentially developed Soviet modeling techniques, particularly two-dimensional models, and has also made propagation studies with his models. A 1951 paper [88] by Riznichenko is the earliest Soviet publication noted on seismic models. Later papers by Riznichenko and co-workers are listed in the References [89-91]. Ivakin has published papers using seismic models to investigate absorption of waves. He has also received a license for developing an apparatus for artificially producing seismic wave processes with models which represent typical geologic structures. His more significant articles are listed in the References [59, 60, 92].

Parkhomenko has used ultrasonic models to investigate head waves passing through a thin high-velocity layer [93] submerged in a fluid. Three-dimensional models were used. The form of the head wave was altered as it traversed the solid layer and the amplitudes of the diffracted wave were found to increase as the angle of incidence approached the critical angle. Quantitative figures were given for these variations. A later model study by Parkhomenko concerned waves traveling across a series of layers with increasing velocities [80].

Tectonic Models: A number of significant Soviet publications on tectonic models have been noted. M. V. Gzovskiy of the Institute of Earth Physics is the most important Soviet investigator in this field. His 1958 paper, "The Modeling Method in Tectonophysics" [94], provides a good concept of Soviet tectonic modeling methods, and includes an extensive list of Soviet references.

Tectonic modeling is of secondary interest in seismology and is not discussed further in this review.

Rock Properties: There are many Soviet publications on investigations of rock properties. Of

interest here are those on laboratory determinations of elastic constants, especially at elevated pressures and temperatures. Several papers concerned determinations of stresses in mine pillars using ultrasonic velocity measurements. Rock mechanics is treated in a book by L. A. Schreiner [95]. M. V. Volarovich and co-workers have made ultrasonic velocity measurements [96] of coal at confining pressures up to 1,000 kg/cm², and measurements of wave velocities in rock specimens [97] at pressures up to 5,000 kg/cm². Silayeva has investigated methods for determining elastic properties of rocks under confining pressures [98] and has obtained experimental data with ultrasonic techniques on the elastic properties of rocks and the absorption of elastic waves in rock specimens. The elastic constants were found to increase and absorption decrease as confining pressures were increased up to 100 kg/cm². The technique of measurement simulated seismic field procedures, in which amplitudes were recorded along a profile line. These investigations by Volarovich and Silayeva are significant, but it is noted that they did not include as high pressures as have been used by P. W. Bridgman, D. T. Griggs, and others.

Riznichenko and co-workers have published papers on ultrasonic methods for measuring velocity of propagation in rocks under strain, including determination of rock tension from ultrasonic velocities [99], and the effect of uniaxial compression on the velocity of propagation in rocks [100, 101].

Laboratory analyses of frequency spectra: Significant Soviet papers have appeared on frequency analyses of seismograms. Spectral analyses proved another factor that may help differentiate types of seismic waves.

Berzon has pointed out that frequency analyses of seismic waves have been made for a number of years [56] at the All-Union Scientific Research Institute of Prospecting Geophysics, where an apparatus was constructed some years ago and data have been obtained since then on spectral compositions of reflected and refracted waves. More sensitive instruments for spectral analyses were built in 1954-1955 at the Institute of Earth Physics, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences. Some of these spectral analyses included frequency investigations of various waves traveling through thinly stratified media.

Shamina [102] and Slutkovskiy [103] both wrote their Candidate's dissertations on frequency analyses of seismic waves. Voyutskiy and Slutkovskiy developed frequency analyses techniques for seismic investigations prior to 1952 [104].

Bereza and co-workers have described instrumentation for frequency analyses of seismic wave which consists of 24 sharply-tuned slightly-

damped galvanometers, each with a different resonant frequency [105]. Each galvanometer recorded the amplitudes of the frequency components present to which it was tuned. In a later paper, Bereza described new instrumentation which consists of seismographs, broad-band amplifiers, and recording elements taken primarily from existing field instrumentation. A two-channel apparatus was used for recording seismic waves in the field. It was claimed that seismic reproduction with this apparatus resulted in negligible frequency distortion.

Khudzinskiy and Melamud have given a detailed description of instrumentation that automatically recorded wave spectra in the range of 10 to 250 cps, which can be used either in the field or in the laboratory [107]. Recording seismographs with variable band-widths will permit frequency analyses with conventional seismic equipment, requiring only minor modifications. Recently improved amplifiers with wider pass-bands permit even more sensitive frequency analyses [108]. Illustrations of frequency spectra of various types of waves were given by Khudzinskiy and Melamud [107], including records from single seismometers, seismometer arrays, waves recorded by different natural frequency seismometers, and recordings in bore holes.

In a series of articles, Gol'tsman has discussed frequency analyses of seismic waves [109-112], including graphical methods, linear filtering systems, and inverse frequency characteristics of filtered signals. Another paper, by Gryn, concerns mathematical analyses of spectra for one type of impulse [113].

Earthquake Seismology

General Statement

Since the destructive Ashkhabad earthquake of October 6, 1948, Soviet earthquake seismology has been expanding rapidly. By 1957, 70 permanent earthquake stations and a total of 94 stations were reported in operation. By 1959, there were still 70 permanent stations (40 belonging to the Institute of Earth Physics and 30 to the regional seismological organizations), but additional recordings were being made at various geophysical observatories and by field expeditions. A number of new seismograph stations have been installed or are planned for installation during the next few years [114]: 37 in Siberia, 2 in Antarctica, and more elsewhere.

Solov'yev has reported that at the March, 1959, meeting of the Council on Seismology of the U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences, a Single Seismic Service [114] for the U. S. S. R. (YeSS) was discussed and accepted. Henceforth, all earthquake stations will operate under the regulations of the new Single Seismic Service, under

the supervision of the Council on Seismology.

A summary of Soviet earthquake seismology appeared in a 1957 article by Savarenskiy [115], and a statement on the future program was included in the article by Solov'yev [114]. An excellent book on Soviet earthquake seismology is that by Savarenskiy and Kirnos [116], "Elements of Seismology and Seismometry".

The 1957 "Atlas of the Seismic Nature of the U. S. S. R." has been the most significant publication of the Soviet Seismic Service. The Atlas is a collection of works of seismologists from the U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences and from Union Republic Academies. It includes catalogs, charts, and records approximately 10,000 earthquake epicenters; it also includes discussions on the cause and mechanism of earthquakes and provides the basic data for seismic zoning in the U. S. S. R.

Data on the permanent Soviet Seismograph stations have appeared in the published literature, they include station name, geographic location, and types of instruments installed. Descriptions of the seismographs used have also been published. The majority of the Soviet seismograph stations record with the broadband vertical SVK and horizontal SGK Kirnos instruments. These instruments have been modified to the vertical SVK-M and horizontal SGK-M instruments, which have considerably higher magnifications that are peaked at periods of approximately one second. Several of these seismographs have been used with much success. Soviet seismographs commonly used for recording local earthquakes are the vertical VSKh and horizontal GSKh Kharin instruments. These have high peak magnifications over a relatively narrow short-period range (0.15 to 0.35 seconds).

Earthquake Catalogs and Records: Numerous Soviet articles have been published on U. S. S. R. earthquakes, particularly in the Soveta po Seismologii, AN, SSSR and in bulletins of the various Soviet Seismic Stations. The 1957 "Atlas of the Seismic Nature of the U. S. S. R." is an outcome of data from these publications.

Specific Earthquakes and Seismicities of Particular Areas: Many articles have described particular Soviet earthquakes and seismicities of the more active regions, particularly Southern Russia, Central Asia, and Eastern Siberia. Numerous papers have also described the earthquakes which have occurred within a region. It is beyond the scope of this report to discuss individual earthquakes or seismicities of areas.

Earthquake Investigation Expeditions: Numerous Soviet earthquake expeditions have been organized to make investigations in particular areas, specifically the Caucasus, Turkmenia, Tadzhikistan, northern Tien-Shan, Kazakhstan,

Kuril-Kamchatka, and Antarctica. Most of these expeditions have been sponsored by the Academies of Sciences of the U. S. S. R. and the Union Republics. Some expeditions were large and have been in operation for a number of years; others were smaller and shorter lived.

Only the more prominent expeditions are here mentioned. The Garm Geophysical Expedition is probably the most extensive. It operated from 1942-1949 and completed construction of special earthquake stations at Stalinabad and at Obi-Garm. It also organized temporary seismic stations within a radius of 100 km of these main stations to record foreshocks for earthquake prediction studies.

The Ashkhabad Expedition was organized in 1949 to record aftershocks of the destructive 1948 Ashkhabad earthquake. Five temporary stations were used by this expedition. The Aral-Caspian expedition was organized in 1951 to study earthquakes along the Turkmen Canal and to determine seismic zoning in the vicinity of the canal. The second Turkmen Expedition of the Geophysical Institute, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences, made seismic measurements near Ashkhabad in 1953 with VEGIK and Kharin seismographs. The VEGIK seismographs were used for engineering studies and the Kharin for earthquake recording [118].

The Shemakha Seismic Expedition [119] of 1953 studied azimuths and emergence angles of arriving waves as a function of dip angles of strata traversed. The ray azimuths were noted to coincide with the source direction when strata between station and epicenter were horizontal, but not when dipping. The Apsheron Seismic Expedition [120] of 1957-1960 investigated the seismicity of the Apsheron Peninsula and utilized six small seismic installations. The Tadzhik Seismological Expedition of 1955 and 1956, sponsored by the Geophysical Institute, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences, and the Tadzhik S. S. R. Academy of Sciences, investigated improved methods for locating epicenters in the Tadzhik area. Among International Geophysical Year expeditions, the Soviet Antarctic Expedition established seismic stations at the "Mirnyy" and "Oazis" settlements [115].

Earthquake Mechanisms

Numerous Soviet publications concern the mechanism of earthquake sources. Belousov and Gzovskiy [121] have contended that the tectonic displacements are produced by vertical movements in the crust which are particularly pronounced along the borders between oceanic and continental areas. They maintained that slow deformations produce plastic flow without consequent earthquakes, whereas rapid deformations result in earthquakes.

The most quantitative Soviet analyses of earthquake mechanisms have been made by Keylis-Borok. In a number of papers he described methods for determining the strike and dip of a fault plane at earthquake foci from the first motions of P and S waves and ratio of the amplitude of P to the amplitude of S. These are discussed in the section on "Focal Parameters and Characteristics". Studies made at the Geophysical Institute, U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences, since 1948 on earthquake mechanisms [122] and resultant wave propagation from various types of faults have been described by Gotsadze and co-workers.

Keylis-Borok and Malinovskaya have investigated fault motions producing earthquakes in northern Tien-Shan [123]. Weak earthquakes in the Tien-Shan area were found to be associated with faults that strike nearly perpendicularly to the main fault direction.

The mechanism associated with deep earthquakes has been described in several papers. It was proposed by Egyed [124] that the earth is expanding its diameter at a rate of about 1 mm per year due to physical changes in its interior and that this expansion produces earthquakes along zones in which the accumulated stress exceeds the strength of the crust. The effect of such expansion would be to produce zones of relative tension. Kogan wrote his Candidate's dissertation [125] on the dynamic parameters associated with deep earthquake foci. His working hypothesis was a uniform subcrustal flow which produced tectonic movements and resulted in the observed geosynclinal and platform structures [126].

Relation of Earthquakes to Geology: More than 30 papers were noted that relate geology to earthquakes. Most of these papers, however, concern descriptions of geology in areas of high seismicity.

Razanov correlated the detailed geology with the great Ashkhabad earthquake of 1948. He analyzed this quake, and others in the area which had been described by Rustanovich, by relating earthquake foci to regional geologic features [127]. Most of these shocks originated in the deeper sedimentary layers in the Kopet-Dagh foredeep (Turkmen S. S. R.) and within the upper portions of the underlying basement rocks, ranging in depth from 3 to 12 km. It was concluded that the main Ashkhabad earthquake was related to the most recent tectonic movements, which have resulted in an uplift in the southwest portion of the Ashkhabad area. The Ashkhabad earthquake was found to have occurred along a hinge-line between recent subsidence and uplift.

Gzovskiy wrote a significant paper on the relation between seismicity and geology [128], which was an outcome of a 1955 program of

study at the Geophysical Institute, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences, to formulate geologic criteria as an aid to forecasting earthquakes. Gzovskiy emphasized the need for knowing regional stresses and stress accumulations in the earth. He recommended that model studies should be made concurrently with field investigations. This paper includes many references, mostly to Soviet authors, pertaining to the relation between earthquake mechanisms and geologic features.

Savarenskiy and Nenilina [129] attempted to allow for geological features, particularly boundaries between major features, in locating earthquake foci. The procedure described for eliminating the effect of geological heterogeneities to permit more precise focal locations includes first determining focal positions by conventional methods, and then recalculating them for assumed geologic structures. Several examples were given.

Earthquakes and Ground Tilt or Movement: Some Soviet analyses have been made on the relation between ground tilt and earthquakes. Bonchkovskiy has described sizable ground tilts at large epicentral distances both preceding and accompanying large earthquakes [130]. The large 1951 earthquake on Tiawan resulted in a change of motion on inclinometers in England in a mine at a depth of 116 meters and the inclinometers remained at a new level after the quake. Inclinometers in Japan also recorded significant changes of slope during this earthquake. It was mentioned that deformations have long been recorded in Japan which both preceded (by as much as 18 months) and accompanied strong local earthquakes.

Two mutually perpendicular quartz torsional deformographs were installed at the Yalta Station [130] in 1956. These deformographs showed irregular breaks 18 hours prior to the March 9, 1957 earthquake in the Aleutian Islands. After the shock there was a change in sign on the deformograph records. Bonchkovskiy concluded that further study is needed to determine the mechanism producing the tilt and whether ground tilts can be used as criteria in earthquake warnings. The implication that stresses can be transmitted throughout most of the crust of the earth is consistent with 1951 conclusions by H. Benioff in the United States.

Ostrovskiy has reported on slow movements of the earth's crust in which very low-frequency waves arrive from a strong shock prior to the initial P wave [131]. Gurevich has also studied the nature of slow displacements associated with earthquakes. He proposed instrumentation which would measure slow ground displacements prior to earthquakes [132] that could be used as possible forerunners of the actual shocks.

Causes of Earthquakes: A number of Soviet

papers concern the relation between tectonic faulting and strains in the earth's crust and upper mantle, although no other significant theories were noted on causes or earthquakes. Gзовский has written several papers on mechanisms associated with tectonic faults [133] and has proposed modeling tectonic stress fields and consequent ruptures [134].

Little has appeared in Soviet literature on particular stress distributions in the ground that result in observed source motions. On the other hand, considerable emphasis has been placed upon defining displacements at the source from first motions of body waves and from analyses of surface waves [135].

Earthquake Aftershocks: Soviet investigations of aftershocks, as from the 1948 Ashkhabad earthquake, are made routinely, but few articles concern analyses of aftershock data. The 1957 "Atlas of the Seismic Nature of the U. S. S. R." contains pertinent data.

Earthquake Periodicity: Few Soviet papers concerned periodicities of earthquakes. Pertinent data may appear in the 1957 Atlas. One paper by Kirillova relates earthquake periodicity with vertical crustal movements [136], as evidenced by fluctuations of the Caspian Sea. In view of the Soviet interest in earthquake prediction, a larger number of Soviet papers on earthquake periodicity is to be expected.

Earthquake Prediction: Earthquake prediction has been a field of major Soviet investigation. Soviet concern with prediction, as of 1955, was summarized by Gamburtsev [137] at a Conference of Russian Seismologists on Methods of Forecasting Earthquakes. The object of forecasting was to predict the approximate time, location, and maximum intensity of an earthquake. Suggested directions of observation included measurements of slow movements on the earth's surface, recording foreshocks, and determining possible changes in seismic velocities in deeper strata. It was held that destructive earthquakes occur along major active faults, and that it is for earthquakes along such faults predictions should be directed.

In 1955, one of the major programs of the Geophysical Institute, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences, was to investigate all possibilities for predicting earthquakes, including geologic criteria. At a 1954 meeting of the Geophysical Institute, 14 papers were presented on earthquake prediction which have been published [138] in the Transactions of the Institute. Many senior Soviet seismologists participated in this prediction program. These investigations concerned correlating earthquakes with local geologic structure, geomorphology, preliminary ground tilt, both high-frequency and low-frequency forerunner waves, variations in the earth's magnetic field, variations in atmospheric

electric potential, and period of the moon.

Interpretation of Earthquake Seismograms

Many Soviet papers pertain to interpretation of seismograms from teleseisms, particularly those from shallow shocks. Most authors on seismogram investigations have been affiliated with the various Soviet seismological stations or the Moscow headquarters of the Institute of Earth Physics.

Travel-Time Curves of Earthquake Seismograms: N. V. Kondorskaya, who wrote her Candidate's dissertation on interpretation of travel-time curves (Geophysical Institute, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences, 1954), appears to be the major Soviet contributor to this field. She has published papers on regional peculiarities of travel-time curves [139] and determined corrections for the Jeffreys-Bullen travel-time curves for recordings made in the Far East, Central Asia, and the Caucasus. She has found that statistically determined corrections resulted in more accurate epicentral locations. Kondorskaya published further corrections to the Jeffreys-Bullen travel-time [140] tables in 1957. Other authors have constructed travel-time curves for Czechoslovakia, the Caucasus, Central Asia, and other areas.

Epicentral Location and Ray Azimuth: Numerous Soviet papers concern methods for determining epicentral locations and some on ray azimuths and emergence angles. Other sources list epicenters of various areas, particularly the "Atlas of the Seismic Nature of the U. S. S. R." (1957) and an epicentral map of northern Tien-Shan [141].

Significant papers concern improved methods of determining epicentral locations. Tvaltzadze and Kartsiadze have used new data to determine the distribution of epicenters and foci of earthquakes in the Caucasus [142]. Corrections were made to travel-time curves for the effect of sedimentary layers, which may be as thick as the granitic layers in this region. Equations for the corrections were developed. Riznichenko investigated improvements in epicentral locations by comparing observed data with theoretical data for assumed velocities and layering in the area [143]. Allowances for geologic variations were found to improve epicentral locations. The procedure was tested on many earthquakes recorded in 1955 and 1956 by the Tadzhik Seismological Expedition. Numerous checks have shown that this method is more accurate than conventional methods for epicentral location.

Sultanova investigated errors in hypocentral locations [144] of local earthquakes and showed that accurate locations require corrections for local velocity variations. Corrections for geologic variations did change hypocentral

depths, but not epicentral locations. Glivenko has also studied accuracies for determining earthquake hypocenters [145].

Kolosenko has investigated the effect of the ellipticity of the earth for accurate determinations of epicentral distances [146]. He concluded that ellipticity corrections permit more accurate epicentral locations of distant earthquakes than can be obtained with the Jeffreys-Bullen tables.

Numerous Soviet papers concerned determination of azimuth and emergence angles of seismic waves from nearby shocks. Most of these were written since 1941 by Savarenskiy and co-workers. Some of the important papers are listed in the References [147-152].

A new technique for determining seismic ray paths, the azimuthal method, has been developed in the U. S. S. R. This technique is summarized in the book by Ye. I. Gal'perin [153], "Azimuthal Method of Seismic Observations" (1955). The method consists of placing a number of seismometers in a closely spaced circular array, such that the direction of maximum amplitude of the incoming wave can be determined as well as amplitude components in other directions. One procedure consists of placing 8 seismometers in a small circle, each tilted 45 degrees to the vertical and oriented horizontally 45 degrees to its adjacent seismometers. Such seismometer arrays have been used to improve locations of earthquake epicenters in areas where shocks were too small to be recorded at other stations. The method is no more accurate than conventional location of epicenters involving triangulation from 3 or more stations. The instrumentation, interpretation procedures, and reliability of the azimuthal method are described by Gal'perin [153].

From 1951 to 1953 the azimuthal apparatus was used to record earthquakes [154] in Turkmenia, near Alma Station, and in Garm Oblast. Vector displacements of incoming waves were calculated from sets of 8 seismographs at a station, and approximately 100 earthquakes were used for these azimuthal studies. The interpretation procedure is described in the paper.

Long-Period Waves on Seismograms: Surface wave theory was discussed in the section on "Wave Propagation". Analyses of long-period waves on seismograms are included in the following paragraphs.

Soviet ability to interpret surface wave data on seismograms is well summarized in two reports by V. M. Arkhangel'skaya on the 1st and 2nd Extended Seminars of the Institute of Earth Physics on Surface Waves [21]. Significant papers were presented at the Seminars on surface waves recorded on seismograms.

A most significant paper presented at the seminars was by Yanovskaya [21] on an analysis of surface waves to determine the direction of wave emission from earthquake foci. This method was analyzed in an earlier paper [33] and it is discussed in this review under "Focal Parameters and Characteristics", in "Earthquake Seismology".

Arkhangel'skaya reported at the seminars [21] on experimental studies of surface waves to define their characteristics and investigate the possible existence of new types of surface waves. She described determinations of group and phase velocities and resultant dispersion curves for surface waves from which average thicknesses of the earth's crust could be obtained. Dispersion curves were investigated of Love and Rayleigh waves from numerous earthquakes recorded on seismograms at various Soviet stations.

Variations in periods of surface waves [155] with epicentral distance have been investigated by Solov'yev and Shebalin. Recordings with the wide-band SVK and SGK Kirnos seismographs have led to the conclusion that the maximum period of a surface wave increased as the cube root of epicentral distance, up to 17,000 km distances (farthest distance recorded). Such a period variation may be significant in differentiating explosions from earthquakes.

Determinations of epicentral locations from surface waves [156] had been made by Arkhangel'skaya before 1957. Epicentral distances for distant earthquakes were calculated from arrival-time differences between Love and P waves and between Rayleigh and P waves. This approach cannot be used for local shocks because of the nearly simultaneous arrival of the Love and Rayleigh waves. Epicenters of local shocks were determined from L-P times, where L is the surface wave time. A new wave L_X was noted, which has a period of 7 to 10 seconds and appears to be propagated in the upper layer of the earth's crust. At the 1st Seminar for the Study of Surface Waves, Savarenskiy and Raghimov discussed epicentral azimuths of Rayleigh waves [21] as calculated from seismograms at 3 adjacent stations. Several papers at the seminar also concerned surface waves generated in local earthquakes.

Although the Soviets have developed surface wave theory significantly, participants at both seminars concluded that much remains to be done on surface wave development. Greatest effort, it was stated, should be directed toward interpretation of observed surface waves, becoming familiar with surface-wave investigations in other countries, and developing long-period seismographs.

Microseisms: Considerable Soviet research has been done on microseisms and their relation

to storms in oceanic regions and in the larger inland seas. Monakhov [157] and co-workers have recently studied the structure of microseisms and their relations to storms at sea. The character of particle motion of microseismic waves originating in both the Black Sea and the North Atlantic Ocean were investigated. The majority of the microseisms were complex in character. Love waves were absent in almost every case. Rayleigh waves made up about 5 percent of the microseisms from the Black Sea and 15 percent of those from the North Atlantic. The oscillation planes of the Rayleigh waves were usually oriented toward the origin of the microseisms.

Savarenskiy and co-workers related microseismic activity to strong winds in the Lake Issyk-Kul' region [158]. The results were based on data collected over a three-year period. The microseismic periods were found to be related to wind velocities on the lake.

Veshnyakov [159] investigated errors in microseismic azimuthal determinations from recordings at tripartite networks. It was proposed that azimuth errors can be reduced if the distance in the tripartite station network is increased to triangles 6 to 7 km on a side. Rykunov and Prosvirin [160] have analyzed microseismic azimuths distorted by the propagating media. The effect of refraction along oceanic and continental crusts was investigated, using phase velocity dispersion curves. It was found that variations in the depths of refracting layers beneath the ocean do effect azimuths of microseisms. A technique was proposed for elimination of azimuthal distortion.

Tsunami: In 1958, the U. S. S. R. initiated a tsunami (seismic sea wave) warning service. Papers on tsunami,* and the need for a warning service, were presented in 1957 at the (first) Conference on the Problem of Tsunami and the Seismicity of The Far East, held at Novo-Aleksandrovsk [161] (Yuzhno-Sakhalinsk), sponsored by the Seismologic Council and the Sakhalin Institute of the Scientific Studies, both of the U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences. At the Conference Savarenskiy discussed the need for a tsunami service in the U. S. S. R. and also reviewed tsunami services in the United States and Japan. Other papers concerned theoretical calculations of wave heights anticipated at various coastal locations from strong shocks at sea, including a comparison of estimates with observed heights. Papers also included the effect of coastal relief and epicentral distance upon tsunami heights. It was recommended at the Conference that installations be constructed for

automatic means of warning populations of oncoming tsunami.

Previous Soviet work on tsunami was noted in papers by Brekhovskikh and Savarenskiy. Brekhovskikh pointed out that tsunami warning is possible because the tsunami velocity is 600 to 700 km per hour, while the velocity of sound in water is about 5,500 km per hour. An effective wave-guide in the oceans exists at a depth of 1,200 to 1,400 meters, where attenuation is small; therefore tsunami can be detected over considerable distances [162]. Savarenskiy mentioned that tsunami are caused by abrupt changes in the volume in an ocean basin and are thus caused by tectonic earthquakes [163] with shallow foci. Warnings of approaching tsunami can be obtained by acoustic waves traveling through the water because of the large differences in the velocity of tsunami and sound in water. The position and direction of propagation of tsunami can be calculated from shallow earthquake epicenters or from an advancing tsunami recorded at least by three stations.

Source and Focal Conditions

Soviet seismologists have been investigating focal conditions by analyses of seismograms and of earth-tilts prior to and during an earthquake. The prominent investigators are V. I. Keylis-Borok, S. D. Kogan, T. B. Yanovskaya, S. L. Solov'yev, and N. V. Shebalin.

Focal Parameters and Characteristics: Since 1950 Soviet investigators have made seismogram analyses of motions at the focus from the direction of first motion of body waves, the ratio of amplitude of P to the amplitude of S, and from amplitudes of surface waves. Keylis-Borok has been the principal contributor using body waves and Yanovskaya using surface waves.

Keylis-Borok [164] published his first paper on the dynamic parameters of a focus in 1950 and presented a graphical determination for displacements at the foci in another publication [165]. This was followed in 1957 with a theoretical paper on the relation between waves propagated and type of fault displacement [166].

An excellent Soviet publication on various investigations of the mechanisms of earthquakes, based primarily upon the techniques of Keylis-Borok, appears in a separate issue of the Transactions [167] of the Geophysical Institute (U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences). Papers in this issue are by V. I. Keylis-Borok, S. D. Kogan, O. D. Gotsadze, T. I. Kakhtikova, and L. N. Malinovskaya and include determinations of earthquake displacements in some of the Soviet seismically active areas.

Keylis-Borok also described his methods in the Italian journal [168], *Anal. Geofisica*. An ellipsoid of rotation was taken as a model of an

*The singular and plural forms of the Japanese term tsunami are identical -- M. R.

earthquake focus and equations were developed which relate the fault plane area and fault displacement in terms of energy released, the shear modulus, and the mean stress acting prior to the earthquake. It was contended that numerous weak earthquakes may play an important role in the formation of and movements along large faults, although the amount of seismic energy released in the weak earthquakes was stated to be negligible. Keylis-Borok's methods have also been summarized in English [169].

Significant investigations on the use of surface waves for determining directions of earthquake movements have been published by Yanovskaya [33] and summarized in a paper given at the Seminar of the Department of Seismology and Seismic Service of the Institute of Earth Physics for the Study of Surface Waves [21]. The analysis consists of using amplitude ratios of Love and the horizontal component of Rayleigh waves for the same period. Periods of 20 to 24 seconds were used and corresponding amplitude ratios were plotted as a function of epicentral azimuth for waves received at different stations from the same shock. It was concluded that at the intersection of the curve with the abscissa, the azimuth at which no Love wave arrives, the abscissa value is the same or 180° out of phase with the direction of the motion. Applications of this method to several Soviet earthquakes were claimed to have been in good agreement with independent analyses of first motions of body waves. Yanovskaya [21] gave another paper at the following year's seminar, but it was noted that she did not continue with the analysis of source motions from surface waves on seismograms.

S. D. Kogan's Candidate's dissertation (Geophysics Institute, 1953) was on the investigation of the dynamic parameters of deep focus earthquakes. This and his subsequent investigations on deep focus mechanisms have been published [126, 170, 171]. Various types of dynamic sources at the foci were investigated. The earlier papers considered simple sources. The most significant paper [171] discussed the effect of the sum of separate simple sources, including: a simple force plus a dipole producing a moment, a simple force plus a dipole without a moment, a dipole plus a moment, a dipole without a moment, and superposition of two dipoles with a moment. Analytical expressions were derived for the components of displacement, but graphical methods were used for the combined source motions.

Magnitude, Intensity, and Energy of Earthquakes: Several Soviet papers have related magnitude, intensity, and energy of earthquakes. Shebalin studied the relation between intensity and magnitude of earthquakes with respect to focal depths for a series of shocks [172], from which he concluded that the Gutenberg and Richter equations relating energy and magnitude

require modification for shocks at depths below 20 km. Solov'yev and Shebalin have developed empirical equations relating earthquake magnitude to amplitudes and periods of surface waves [155] on seismograms. Other authors have published on the classification of earthquakes according to energy at the focus [173, 174].

Seismicity and Seismic Zoning in the Soviet Union

Approximately 200 Soviet papers on seismicity and seismic zoning in various parts of the U. S. S. R. have been noted. The main contributors to this subject have been Ye. F. Savarenskiy, G. P. Gorshkov, N. V. Gzovskiy, N. V. Krestnikov, I. L. Nersesov, N. V. Kondorskaya, S. S. Andreyev, Ye. A. Rozova, N. A. Vvedenskaya, and V. V. Belousov.

Savarenskiy has written numerous papers on seismicities of different portions of the U. S. S. R. Under his direction [175] the 1957 "Atlas of the Seismic Nature of the U. S. S. R." was prepared. Earthquakes were classified in the atlas by accuracy of epicentral location and by seismic regions. These include the Carpathians, Crimea, Caucasus, Kopet-Dagh, Central Asia, Altay, Baykal, Far Eastern, and the Arctic areas.

A general survey of the seismicity [176] of the U. S. S. R. was published by Gorshkov. This paper also mentioned that tectonic movements are the main cause of earthquakes.

Most seismicity papers pertained to investigations of particular localities. Some of the papers relate seismicity to tectonics, to geomorphology, to energy characteristics at the source, to periodicities of earthquakes, to chronology of earthquakes, and related factors.

Soviet seismologists have placed much emphasis on the seismotectonic method of outlining seismic areas, wherein seismic activity is correlated to tectonic activity. A description of the seismotectonic method was published in 1957 by Krestnikov [177]. A comparison of the tectonics and seismicity [178] in the very active Garm region of Tadzhik was described by Gzovskiy and co-workers, who reviewed the history of the tectonic movements and made a quantitative comparison of the tectonics and seismicity of the Garm region. They presented new interpretations of the tectonics of the Garm region, which joins the Pamir and Tien-Shan regions.

The highest seismicity in the U. S. S. R. is in the Kuril-Kamchatka region of the Far East. Kondorskaya and Postolenko have described the seismic activity of this region [179] from 1954 to 1956. The second highest seismicity occurs in the Tadzhik S. S. R. Bune [180] has written

papers on this area and I. Ye. Gubin, Ye. Ya. Rantsman, I. P. Pasechnik are among many others who have investigated the seismicity of this region. The largest number of seismicity papers have been written on the Caucasus. Of many publishing on this area, Ye. I. Byus, I. V. Kirillova, A. A. Sorskiy, and S. S. Andreyev are prominent. Andreyev wrote his Candidate's dissertation on the depth structure and seismicity of the Turkmen region.

Seismicities of Central Asia were described by Ye. A. Rozova, S. V. Puchkov, D. N. Kazanli, N. A. Vvedenskaya, and A. A. Vogel. The latter two published an epicentral map of Northern Tien-Shan [141]. Seismicities of other areas have also been described in the Soviet Literature, such as the Black Sea depression, the Crimea, the Kirgiz S. S. R., the Ural Mountains, Azerbaijan, the Arctic, and also areas outside of the Soviet Union, such as the Balkans and Scandinavia.

Seismic zoning: Seismic zoning is a concept developed in the U. S. S. R. that refers to assigning quantitative figures to areas signifying the intensity and frequencies of earthquakes occurring within a region. The purpose of seismic zoning is to aid in prediction of occurrence and the intensity of an earthquake, and in the preparation of building codes.

The fundamentals of the methods of seismic zoning have been summarized in a recent article by Puchkov [181], who included a short history of seismic zoning in the U. S. S. R. The first seismic zone maps were published in 1933 and showed possible areas of future earthquakes above a certain intensity in Turkmenia. In 1947 G. P. Gorshkov published more seismic zone maps of Turkmenia. In 1949 S. V. Medvedev constructed a seismic zone map for the Moldavian S. S. R. Also in 1949, Gubin suggested that seismic zoning maps should be based on past [182] and anticipated earthquake activity. In 1954, V. V. Belousov proposed basing seismic zoning on an analysis of the tectonic history of an area [183].

The official Soviet map of seismic zoning was published in 1956 under the direction of V. V. Medvedev and included seismic zoning of the entire Soviet Union. The 1957 "Atlas of the Seismic Nature of the U. S. S. R." included seismic zoning maps of the entire country. For these latter maps, a new scale of earthquake magnitude [175] was introduced, base upon amplitudes and periods on recorded seismograms using the Gutenberg-Richter scale.

In addition to maps of the U. S. S. R., Soviet seismologists have also helped develop zoning maps of Hungary, Yugoslavia, China, and other areas. Recently a map on seismic zoning of China [184] was published, which includes lists of about 10,000 earthquakes and includes

two maps: one of isoseismic lines and the other of seismic regionalization.

Earthquake Resistance Investigations

Many Soviet investigations on requirements for earthquake-proof structures have been documented, including a 1958 issue and a 1959 issue of the *Transactions* [185, 186] of the Institute of Earth Physics. Numerous papers pertain to relative earthquake damage to buildings located on hard rock and on soft rock. It was established that a shock with an intensity of 12 (scale used not indicated) for structures on soft rocks may have an intensity of no more than 8 for structures on bedrock. Rarely, it is claimed, do shocks exceed an intensity of 8 on bedrock. Pertinent articles are listed in the References [187-189].

A new book by A. G. Nazarov [190], "Engineering Analysis of Seismic Forces," described new methods for determining seismic forces with seismographs. Equations of ground motion for multi-channel seismometer recording were integrated from which structural behavior during an earthquake was determined. The seismographs used, mostly strong-motion types, were described in the book. Earthquake intensity was determined from amplitudes and accelerations. The book includes a short survey of seismic instrumentation.

Nazarov [191] also published an analysis of vibrations and stresses produced in structures by earthquakes. Allowance was made for frictional energy losses in structural vibrations. The analysis showed that stresses and deformations in a building are not in phase. Deformation was measured by the seismographs. Stresses were calculated, first from the deformations, and then modified to include frictional resistance. Stresses can thus be determined in a structure from the amplitude and frequency spectra of a recorded shock.

Karapetyan has calculated stresses to which a structure is exposed during an earthquake, using the wave form of the ground vibrations [192]. This procedure was illustrated, using a 1931 earthquake near Tokyo. From equations developed maximum accelerations of the structure were computed and calculations given. Medvedev reported the effect of seismic activity on building structures in several papers [193, 194].

The effect of explosions on manmade structures was investigated in the early 1940's, by M. A. Sadovskiy [195], who summarized his results in a small booklet.

Earthquake-proof construction has been treated in many Soviet papers. Of interest are papers by Kukebayev [196], which concerns structures in the Kazakh S. S. R. region, by

Biryukov [197], which describes design experiences in building construction at Alma Ata, and by Bukhovstov [198], which concerns stress analyses of buildings.

Composition of the Earth from Seismology

A summary of the origin and composition of the earth [199] was published by Levin in 1957.

Crust of the Earth: Several Soviet papers pertain to techniques for determining crustal structures and of descriptions of regional crustal features. Most papers, however, pertained to descriptions of the crust in particular areas.

A summary of crustal cross sections as they exist in various parts of the earth has been included in the book by Savarenskiy and Kirnos [116], "Elements of Seismology and Seismometry". Most of the crustal sections illustrated were based on seismic explosion data. A recent investigation of the earth's crust in Central Asia, using explosion seismic methods, has been published by UloMOV [200].

S. S. Andreyev [201] has proposed use of the transferred wave PS from earthquakes for studying crustal structure. He has claimed that use of these waves provides a method which is independent of the origin time of a shock and is not sensitive to errors in epicentral location.

Numerous papers refer to the crustal structure of the Caucasus. Karapetyan wrote his Candidate's dissertation (1953) on the structure of the earth's crust in the Caucasus [202]. Treskov has written several papers on the earth's crust in the Georgian area, investigating crustal thickness from differences in arrival-time of various waves from a deep focus earthquake [203].

Other papers on crustal structure from earthquake data were noted, but are beyond the scope of this report. Many of these pertain to the Kuril-Kamchatka depression, the Russian Platform, structures of the Trans-Caspian and the Tien-Shan areas, and the transition zone from the Asiatic continent to the Pacific Ocean.

The Earth's Mantle: Few Soviet papers were noted to concern the mantle of the earth. One significant paper is by Shirokova, which discussed longitudinal waves from deep earthquakes [204] in the Hindu Kush Mountains. It was determined that the low-velocity layer in the upper mantle extends to a depth of at least 200 km. The boundaries of this low-velocity layer were claimed to be relatively sharp and the change in velocity at the upper boundary was about 10 percent and that at the lower boundary was somewhat less than 10 percent. These results are of special interest as considerable work has been done on this low-

velocity layer in the United States.

Bugayevskiy proposed to use derivatives of travel-time curves instead of direct travel-time curves as a method for determining composition in the mantle [205]. Average values of the derivatives of the travel-time curves were used as an indication of composition. Vvedenskaya and Balakina have shown that ratios of longitudinal to transverse waves, recorded at numerous Soviet stations from 18 earthquakes in the eastern hemisphere, verify the previously identified discontinuities within the mantle [206]. Magnitskiy discussed the variation of the elastic constants in the 400-900 km range in which a transition of materials is thought to occur [207].

The Earth's Core: Few Soviet papers were found to concern the earth's core. One by Rykunov, on the decrease of amplitude of P waves in the earth's shadow zone at epicentral distances greater than 105 degrees [208], concluded that the wave pattern in the shadow zone depends on the shear modulus in the core.

Explosion Seismology

General Statement

The significance of explosion seismology in the Soviet Union is indicated by the rapid increase in the number of seismic crews, the versatility of field methods being developed, and also the number of Soviet books devoted exclusively to explosion seismology. Four significant books include:

- 1) N. N. Puzyrev [71], "Interpretation of Reflections Shooting Data, (1959), a detailed and up-to-date book on reflection shooting interpretation;
- 2) I. I. Gurvich [209], "Seismic Prospecting", (1954), an earlier, but detailed book on reflection and refraction exploration methods;
- 3) G. A. Gamburtsev, Yu. V. Riznichenko, I. S. Berzon, A. M. Yepinat'yeva, I. P. Pasechnik, I. P. Kosminskaya, and E. V. Karus [210], "Refraction-Correlation Method, (1952), describes in detail field procedures, interpretation, and instrumentation for refraction-correlation shooting as developed in the U. S. S. R., especially for studies of the earth's crust;
- 4) I. S. Berzon [211], "High-Frequency Seismic Methods," (1957), which describes high-frequency methods used for investigations of relatively shallow structures as developed in the U. S. S. R.

The principal problems for the immediate future [56] in Soviet explosion seismology are to study propagation in various types of media; to develop methods for better interpretation of wave amplitudes and spectra; to determine coefficients of absorption, reflection, and refraction; to examine new interpretation parameters, particularly dispersion; and to develop automation and data-processing procedures. Since

945, G. A. Gamburtsev [56] has directed Soviet programs toward:

1) extending the usable range of seismic wave frequencies to higher and lower frequencies; 2) studying the physical properties of wave propagation and developing methods utilizing amplitudes, frequency spectra, and other wave characteristics; and 3) investigating and utilizing non-longitudinal waves in addition to working with the conventional longitudinal waves.

Explosion seismology methods have been developed at the Institute of Earth Physics, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences; All-Union Scientific Research Institute of Geophysical Prospecting and other organizations under the Ministry of Geology and Conservation of Natural Resources; Leningrad Division of the Mathematical Institute, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences; and numerous Republic Academies of Sciences, particularly the Ukrainian Institute of Geological Sciences.

Most Soviet papers on seismic exploration pertain to particular problems in various areas of the U. S. S. R. and concern methods of investigation and solutions obtained. The investigations include nearly all areas in which seismic shooting can be carried out. The largest number of papers pertain to the Russian platform and the Volga-Ural regions.

Seismic Exploration Expeditions: Besides conventional exploration, Soviet seismic expeditions have been placed in the field intermittently to make special investigations in selected areas. One of the earliest of these was the Korkino Seismic Expedition, which recorded large explosions in Siberia in 1936. The Trans-Caucasian Seismic Expedition was sent into the field in 1946 by the Seismological Institute, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences. An expedition to make underwater explosion studies and to determine deep crustal structures from explosions was sent in 1947-1949 by the Geophysical Institute, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences. The North Tien-Shan Expedition made deep crustal investigations from 1949-1951, recording large chemical explosions with the refraction-correlation method. The Tuimasa Expedition, under the direction of the All-Union Scientific Institute of Geophysical Methods of Prospecting, is one of the larger expeditions; it consisted of many individual crews and activities, employing about 850 people.

Types of Seismic Investigation

Conventional seismic reflection and refraction methods have been highly developed. Soviet investigations have included studies of sedimentary sections, basement rocks, crustal and subcrustal regions, shallow structures in igneous bodies, certain non-economic geologic features, and Arctic and Antarctic regions.

In basement, crustal, and subcrustal investigations, the Soviets have been more active than other countries. Low-frequency refraction techniques were developed by G. A. Gamburtsev and co-workers to provide a higher resolving power for investigations of the deeper regions. Since 1949, deep refraction investigations have been made in various parts of the U. S. S. R., and some were made at sea.

Two large underground chemical explosions were detonated relatively recently. Both were recorded with Soviet seismographs at great distances. In December 1957, 1,000 tons of high-energy explosive were detonated for scientific purposes in Tashkent in a mine shaft. In March 1958, 3,100 tons of similar explosive were detonated for making a canal in the Pokrovsk-Ural'skiy region [212].

Soviet investigations have also been made to detect faulting within sedimentary layers. Dyachkova and Sollogub were able to determine small fault offsets [213] by both reflection and refraction methods in the Carpathian area, largely evidenced by the existence of an anhydrite layer at depth. Raykher has also described fault displacements from seismograph data [214]. Starodubrovskaya has described attempts in 1951-1952 at the Geophysical Institute, U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences, to locate and trace faults in areas of metamorphic rocks with high-frequency refraction-correlation methods [215].

Determinations of the shape of buried intrusive rocks have been made by Troyanskiy [216] with refraction techniques. Interpretation procedures followed the method developed by L. W. Gardner (United States) in 1949 for outlining the flanks of salt domes. It was concluded that seismic investigations of igneous structures were significant only for particular geologic features.

In engineering geology both reflection and refraction-correlation methods have been used. The refraction-correlation method is well suited for engineering hydrological exploration. Because of extensive background noise at engineering sites, low-frequency methods proved most satisfactory [217]. Seismic exploration has been done in coal mines and open-pit mines. Antsyferov and Kostantinova have recorded explosions in coal mines with seismographs [218]. Tarkhov has investigated wave propagation properties in open-pit mines [219].

Arctic and Antarctic seismic investigations were made as a part of the Soviet I. G. Y. program. No recent papers on this subject were located, however.

The effect of explosives in seismology have been described in several papers. A recent book includes photographs of explosions and

drilling in rock [220], demonstrating the efficiency of blasting and drilling mechanisms.

Methods of Seismic Exploration

Soviet methods of exploration have been summarized by Gamburtsev [221], with appendix by Riznichenko, and by Berzon [56]. Considerable Soviet activity is devoted to developing new exploration techniques, some of which have higher resolving powers and provide for greater resolution than methods used in the United States.

Soviet methods of seismic exploration include not only conventional reflection and refraction techniques, but since 1945, recording over a wide range of frequencies. Conventional reflection and refraction methods record waves in the range of 25-70 cps; low-frequency methods from 3 1/2 - 20 cps; and high-frequency methods from 70-500 cps. In all methods, reflection or refraction, high-, intermediate-, or low-frequency, emphasis is on correlating traces on seismograms. By 1949, refraction lines up to 400 km long were used. The instrumentation remained the same as in reflection shooting, except that amplifiers were made less noisy, amplification was increased, and seismometers were grouped in arrays. In some instances, large explosions for the longer profiles were detonated in lakes.

Some Soviet work has been done on utilizing transverse waves [222], although it has not been particularly successful. A method of refraction shooting in which the shot point is offset perpendicular to the line of seismometers, called a non-longitudinal profile or a transverse profile of refracted waves, is described by Gurvich [223]. Such refraction methods were found to be useful in areas of gentle dips (see in this review "Travel-time curves in explosion seismology", under "Interpretation Procedure for Explosion Seismology").

Refraction-Correlation Method: The refraction-correlation method is a basic Soviet technique in explosion seismology. It is used for low-frequency, intermediate-frequency and high-frequency refraction work. The book by Gamburtsev, et al [210], (1952), has described the basic physical principles, field techniques, data interpretation procedures, and instrumentation. The book includes a comparison of refraction-correlation with reflection shooting methods.

The refraction-correlation method differs from earlier refraction procedures by recording later refraction arrivals as well as the first refracted waves. The length of the refraction profile depends upon the desired depth of penetration. In refraction-correlation, the seismometer interval was made short enough for refracted energy to be correlated reliably from one trace to the next and seismometer arrays were used to increase recording sensitivity.

Amplification was calibrated so that seismogram amplitudes were an accurate measure of ground motion. Widest application of the refraction-correlation technique has been in the investigations of basement and crustal features. The method can be applied effectively with medium-frequency recording for moderate depths and with high-frequency recording for shallow penetration.

Refraction methods, particularly the refraction-correlation methods, are effective in areas with layers exhibiting low velocity contrasts or areas with only velocity gradients. This has been indicated in two papers by Yegin'at'yeva [224, 225]. The resolving power of the refraction method decreases rapidly when a relatively thick low-velocity layer is encountered at depth. The method can, however, be used in areas containing shallow high-velocity layers that are thin relative to wave length, where refractions can still be obtained from deeper layers [53].

Since 1949, deep refraction investigations have been made in the Balkash region, the Trans-Ili region, the Kirghiz Ridge region, southwest Turkmenia, the Caucasus, the Russian platform, northern Tien-Shan, the Pamir-Altay zone, the Trans-Caspian orogenic system, the Caspian Sea, and more recently, between the Asiatic continent and Pacific Ocean, particularly in the Okhotsk Sea.

The refraction-correlation method has also been applied to industrial problems, for differentiating sedimentary strata; in prospecting for oil structures, coal deposits [226], salt domes; for determining overburden depth to bedrock; and for differentiating surface clays, alluvial deposits, and near-surface conglomerates on the basis of velocities [227]. The method has also been used to trace a relatively shallow water-bearing sandstone and determine its characteristics [43].

It is only within the last few years that methods comparable to the Soviet refraction-correlation have been used in the United States and Canada. As Riznichenko [221] has stated, Soviet refraction-correlation methods are more effective for studying the earth's crust than methods developed in other countries, although marine seismic crustal investigations have been more widespread in the United States.

Low-frequency Refraction Method (3 1/2 - 20 cps): Low-frequency refraction methods are based on the refraction-correlation technique, but provide for deeper penetration and utilize low-frequency seismographs and amplifiers. A significant application of low-frequency refraction methods is to differentiate thick Paleozoic limestones [228] from the underlying basement, where a negligible velocity contrast exists between the two rock types.

A description of low-frequency refraction methods for deep crustal investigations appeared in a 1957 paper by Veytsman [229]. He used seismometers recording in the 6 to 14 cps range, although more recently 3 1/2 cps seismometers have been developed [230]. Amplifications of 300,000 to 400,000 were generally used, with maximum amplifications of 750,000, and microseismic background was reduced by using seismometer arrays. Intervals between the seismometer groups were less than 300 m and individual seismometer spreads ranged from 1 to 40 km in length. Intervals between spreads along the profile were 20 km or more. Thus, amplitude correlation was possible, velocities could be determined accurately, and seismometers were spaced closely over portions only of the refraction line. Veytsman described the main types of wave groups recorded, characteristics of these waves, and criteria for their identification. These criteria depend upon arrival time, apparent velocity, amplitude, and frequency. Studies were being extended to frequency spectrum, which may become a significant criterion.

Equipment used in low-frequency refraction shooting was described in a 1957 paper by Aksenovich, Gal'perin, and Zayonchkovskiy [231]. Profiles up to 400 km were recorded in the frequency range of 8 to 15 cps, using 4 mobile field units, each with 60 receiving channels. Four-stage amplifiers and low-frequency filters provided amplifications up to 750,000, which were used when recording with seismometer arrays.

Low-frequency refraction-correlation techniques have been applied in the Northern Tien-Shan region, southwest Turkmenia (1952), and the Pamir Mountains (1955).

High-frequency Methods (70 - 500 cps): High-frequency seismic reflection and refraction techniques in the recording range of 70 to 500 cps, were developed in the Soviet Union from 1946 to 1953. According to Gamburtsev and Berzon [233], the method has been applied successfully to strata as deep as 2 km.

Because high-frequency waves have a higher resolving power, they can be used to differentiate layered media with strata less than 50 m thick. The high-frequency methods can also be used for investigating characteristics of particular layers, e.g., water-bearing sands at relatively shallow depths, complex structures, and vertical layers. High-frequency methods find their main application in engineering problems and exploration for ore deposits.

High-frequency methods have obtained sufficient stature in the Soviet Union that Berzon has written a book [211] on them. This book provides a good summary of the development of high-frequency methods, shooting techniques

used, application for investigating horizontal media at shallow and intermediate depths, and for investigations of vertically layered media. Results of investigations are described. Special high-frequency instrumentation has been described in a 1956 article by Berzon, Pariyskaya, and Starodubrovskaya [41]. High-frequency filters were used in conjunction with otherwise conventional recording apparatus.

Intermediate-frequency Methods (25 - 70 cps): The Soviets have made extensive field investigations with both refraction and reflection methods at conventional frequency recording, and often have recorded reflected and refracted waves on the same seismograms.

Refraction methods incorporate the refraction-correlation techniques described in this review under "Refraction-Correlation Method".

Reflection methods have been summarized in the book by N. N. Puzyrev, "Interpretation of Reflection Shooting Data" [71], (1959). This book indicates the wide variety of Soviet reflection-shooting techniques used and that Soviet field methods are as advanced as those elsewhere. Although the book is concerned with interpretation of reflection data, the shooting procedures used can be inferred.

Few papers have appeared in recent Soviet literature on methods of reflection shooting. This fact, combined with Soviet books, suggests that reflection methods have been well established in the U. S. S. R.

Pattern (multiple-hole) Shooting: Few Soviet papers referred to pattern shooting, a technique commonly used by U. S. seismic crews in areas where a high-velocity limestone layer is near the surface to increase the signal-to-noise ratio. Nikolayevskiy has pointed out, in an investigation of factors that control the character of waves [234] on seismograms, that character is determined primarily by the upper layers of the geologic section, and that character depends particularly on the elastic properties and thicknesses of these layers. Pattern shooting, Nikolayevskiy mentioned, is an effective procedure for increasing record quality when shooting in a high-speed layer, where recording frequencies are unusually high and the reflection quality low.

Weight-Dropping Source: No Soviet papers were noted on weight-dropping sources for deeper seismic exploration. This technique has been used successfully by some U. S. seismic crews since 1953. This method has the advantage of a low-frequency source without damage caused from dynamite. One Soviet application involves a procedure described by Khalevin, in which weights are dropped 2 meters for determining velocities of rocks along a surface outcrop [235]. Waves were recorded with piezoelectric

crystals.

Marine Shooting: As mentioned by Riznichenko [221], Soviet marine seismic investigations were less developed by 1958 than they were in the United States. In a 1958 paper, Koryakin described crustal structures in the Atlantic Ocean [236]. Several maps and numerous profiles were described, but much of the paper reviewed work in the Atlantic region reported by American and British investigators.

Gal'perin and Kosminskaya have described deep seismic profiling in the central Caspian Sea [237]. Nine different shooting procedures were tried, including fixed and movable shot points, continuous profiling, profiles with wide seismometer spacing, and single and multiple seismometer recording. It was recommended to use movable shots, individual seismometer recording, profiles in the Caspian area of 200-250 km length, and low-frequency recording equipment. The Soviets have also done other marine shooting.

Brekhovskikh published an article as early as 1949 on the distribution of sound in under-water sound channels [238]. Zverev has recently presented data on recording direct sound waves in water at distances up to 163 km and also presented analyses of ray paths in the ocean at these large shot-point offsets [239].

Air Shooting: Several Soviet papers on air shooting were published during the 1940's [240, 241], but none have been noted recently.

Other Methods: Vinogradov has attempted to correlate increases in rock pressures in coal mines, which lead to explosions and rock bursts, with amplitude, frequency, and periodicity of waves [242] from bursts in the mines. Magnetic tape recordings were used, but no general relationships were established. Some investigations have been made on soil creep with seismic methods, using spherical charges in homogeneous soils [243].

Seismometer Arrays and "Noise" Reduction

For many years Soviet seismologists have been active in array investigations, not only in exploration seismology, but also in recording large explosions. High amplifications required can be achieved by recording with seismometer arrays.

Reviews of array spacings used in explosion seismology appear in Chapter 8 of the book by Puzyrev [71]. Early papers on seismometer grouping are by Tsvetayev [244] and by Veysman [245]. From 1944 to 1947, the Ali-Union Institute of Geophysical Methods of Prospecting undertook the problem of separating reflected waves from undesirable waves on seismograms.

By 1949, according to Ryabinkin [246], a method had been developed which consisted of a group of nine seismometers recording per seismogram trace. Photoelectric summation of individual seismometer motions was used and additional frequency filtering was made. A separation of waves on the seismograms was obtained on the basis of the existence of common characteristics. Descriptions of conventional multiple seismometer spacings have been made by Voyutskiy [247], which included graphical analyses of numerous seismograms, showing the signal-to-noise ratio to increase with the number of seismometers per group and the orientations of the seismometers.

The optimum number of seismometers in an array has been investigated by Garasov [248], who presented graphs for the selection of optimum array parameters. The principal parameter was found to be the array diameter or length. A small number of seismometers per array was claimed to provide best results. Garasov has also investigated the effect of wave curvature [249] on seismometer grouping. Corrections were introduced to allow for sphericity of the wave-front by replacing a spherical wave with two-plane waves. Wave-front curvature was found to be insignificant, except for diffracted and scattered waves which have larger curvatures. Sphericity of the reflected wave front can be disregarded for small array spreads.

Voyutskiy and Slutskovskiy have investigated seismometer grouping to minimize undesirable waves, describing arrays as velocity filters [250]. First they analyzed such filtering with two seismometers and attempted to find optimum intervals for favorable noise cancellation. Later investigations included 10 seismometers per array [251] and it was concluded that the favorable array spread is equal to half the propagation velocity of the interfering wave times the apparent wave period.

Several Soviet papers have indicated using arrays also for ray directionality analyses. Napalkov has described seismometer group characteristics which affect the directional selectivity of an array [252]. Graphical and mathematical procedures were developed by which the directional sensitivity of seismic signals could be achieved by special orientation and seismometer placement within an array. Five examples of analyses of directional selectivities were given for arrays of varying complexities.

Two other papers by Isayev also concerned directionality from arrays in which the output from the seismometer group was determined as a function of emergence angle of the incoming wave [253]. Distortions of the dynamic properties of the group recording were investigated. Theoretical investigations of the directional effects of grouping and characteristics of the

directional group of certain incoming pulses were described for assumed source motions as a sinusoidal segment and as a quasi-sinusoidal pulse. It was concluded that arrays increased the signal-to-noise ratio in both reflection exploration shooting and in refraction-correlation shooting. It was also concluded that the signal-to-noise ratio improvement by an array is nearly the same for a pulse as it is for a segment of a sinusoidal wave.

Further studies on directionality of arrays were presented by Gal'perin [254], in which azimuthal grouping was investigated. A line of seismometers was oriented at various azimuths with respect to the profile. By changing the direction of the group line, the directional sensitivity of the group with respect to ground motion was altered. Equations for such groups were derived and methods discussed for obtaining multi-component azimuths on seismograms. The paper mentioned briefly the instrumentation used, including a polarizing seismic analyzer. Azimuthal grouping was shown to increase the sensitivity of an array. Signal-to-noise ratios of longitudinal waves were increased. Polarization studies of microseisms can be made in this way. Numerous illustrations of seismograms and figures were included in the paper.

Seismogram Noise Investigations: Most Soviet papers on reducing seismogram noise concern seismometer arrays, discussed in the previous section, and also electrical filters. A paper by Kosminskaya attempts to analyze interference phenomena of waves on seismograms, so as to separate compound harmonic vibrations into the component interfering seismic waves [255]. As interferences are a result of the superpositioning of several quasinsoidal impulses, formulas were derived for two harmonic refracted waves with assumed apparent velocities and amplitude ratios entering over the length of the interfering zone. It was mentioned that compound waves on seismograms may appear as simple waves.

Interpretation Procedure for Explosion Seismology

Soviet interpretations of explosion data utilize not only travel-time curves and reflection cross sections, but also wave amplitude, absorption, diffraction, horizontal and vertical velocity gradients, and azimuthal direction of the incoming wave. Soviet interpretation of data from explosion seismology is described in several books. In addition to those mentioned previously [71, 209, 210, 211], there are:

- 1) L. V. Sorokin, V. O. Uris, L. A. Ryabinin, and V. I. Kolitskiy [256], "Textbook on Geophysical Methods of Surveying Oil Deposits"; and 2) "Handbook of Seismic Prospecting" [257].

Time Corrections to Seismograms: Although no papers were observed to deal with time corrections to seismograms, a good summary of time corrections used in reflection shooting appears in Chapter 5 of the book by Puzyrev [71]. Correction procedures for surface heterogeneities are described and accuracies of time corrections are indicated.

Ray Path Interpretation: Numerous Soviet publications have concerned ray paths of body waves, i.e., those following Snell's Law. A summary of ray paths as used in reflection shooting appears in the book by Puzyrev [71], and paths of refracted waves appear in the books by Gamburtsev, et al. [210] and by Berzon [211].

Puzyrev [71] has treated ray paths for various seismological conditions, as the effect of geometric divergence of reflections from a thin layer, reflection from transitional layers, computations of amplitudes of reflected waves, the effects of horizontal and vertical velocity gradients on ray path, charts of ray paths and wave fronts for different velocity functions, reflection of compressional waves as shear waves, paths of reflected-refracted waves and refracted-reflected waves, determination of the vibration directions of incoming waves, and construction of cross sections of reflecting surfaces.

The effect of dipping layers on the azimuths of arriving waves has been investigated by F. S. Sultanov in connection with studies by the Shemakha Seismic Expedition [119] of 1953. Although the investigation pertained to earthquake waves, it was found that the azimuth of the arriving ray coincided with the source-to-receiver direction for horizontal strata, but that the azimuth was changed for dipping strata.

Oblogina has analyzed the effect of the interference between head waves and shear waves [258] in refraction shooting. Seismic exploration studies were made in 1954 by Vasil'yev to distinguish arrivals of various refracted waves which consist of longitudinal waves in certain media and shear waves in others [259]. For example, such waves might consist of P waves in the first three media and shear waves refracted back in the upper two. Similar conversions may exist in reflected waves. Numerous data were obtained, but no broad principles established.

Another study on transformed head waves (PSP) was described by Berzon [38]. Converted head waves on the Russian Platform were obtained only when the basement was granite. The PSP waves exhibited a wider variation of dynamic characteristics than the PPP; PSP waves usually contained lower predominant frequencies and exhibited larger damping.

Berzon and Ratnikova have shown that certain

types of interfering waves exist on seismic records from the Russian Platform [42]. These interferences were caused by alternating refracted waves, i. e., waves propagated as longitudinal waves in some layers and as transverse waves in others. In other papers Berzon has investigated the nature of seismic waves propagated through vertically stratified media which contain variable velocities. Amplitudes and velocities of head waves traveling along relatively thin layers with different velocities have been investigated by Davydova [19]. She made mathematical analyses of seismograms, relating vertical and horizontal wave displacements for different velocity differentiation in the media. Calculations were made for thin layers, using a Dirac pulse. Vertical components of amplitude at a receiving station were shown to change as a function of time both in magnitude and direction; the horizontal amplitude components changed only in magnitude. The relations between wave amplitude and velocity of propagation in the media were examined.

The accuracy of refracted wave data have been investigated by Khalevin [260]. The errors resulting in dip, depth, and velocity of the overlying media were analyzed. The dip error was found to become larger as the velocity contrast decreased.

Amplitudes of reflected and refracted waves for low angles of incidence [261] (less than critical angles) have been described by Filippov. Both plane and curved reflecting and refracting surfaces were considered. A proposed rule of thumb is that the amplitude of the reflected wave is approximately that of the incident wave times the reflection coefficient for a plane wave times the square root of the ratio of the radii of curvature of the reflected wave at the point of reflection to that at the point of recording. Refracted waves can be determined in a similar manner. In three-dimensional cases, the product of principal radii curvature of the wave front surface is used instead of the radii of curvature.

Travel-time Curves in Explosion Seismology: Travel-time curves play an important role in Soviet interpretation for both reflection and refraction shooting data. Analyses of travel-time curves for reflection shooting are discussed at length in the books by Puzyrev [71], Gurvich [209], and Kalenov [262]. Numerous technical articles on the interpretation of travel-time curves of both reflected and refracted waves have been published by Berzon and by Yerinat'yeva, and also others.

The necessity for making correct geologic assumptions, especially where low-velocity or thin high-velocity layers exist, was pointed out by Yerinat'yeva [263]. The need for combining reflection and refraction shooting was discussed and the best geologic assumption is that which

most clearly duplicates the observed travel-time curve.

An analysis of travel-time curves by Kosminskaya showed that for amplitudes and phases of different components, an observed composite wave can be estimated by geophysical methods when the amplitudes and the phases of the components are substantially different [62].

The necessity for making corrections to reflection travel-time curves to allow for intermediate discontinuities has been discussed by Glotov [264]. He described simple graphical procedures for determining corrections. Priyma [265] has described methods for making corrections to travel-time curves for terrain and for weathered zones.

The effect of velocity variations on travel-time curves has been discussed in several papers. Yunusov [266] has investigated errors in the computations of reflections from travel-time curves on the Russian Platform when velocity in the upper zone is assumed constant. The need for using correct velocity variations in the upper zone was emphasized. Bogdanov [267] has discussed how to determine from travel-time curves the constants in velocity-depth equations which best apply to an area. Yerinat'yeva and Berzon wrote several papers during the 1940's on the effect of horizontal and vertical velocity gradients on travel-time curves of reflected waves. A paper by Zav'yaylov and Timoshin [268] has stressed the need for refining reflected wave travel-time curves from the simple hyperbolic shape for reflections from curved surfaces.

Determinations of velocities and depth by reversed refraction profiling over curved surfaces was discussed by Timoshin and Zav'yaylov [269]. Techniques of interpreting non-reversed refraction travel-time curves were discussed by Radzhabov [270], based on Gamburtsev's method, and were illustrated for a dipping refracting layer. The method has long been known in the United States. The use of longitudinal (PPP) and transformed (PSP) head waves as a means for determining seismic velocities and depths of layers more accurately has been discussed by Korovnichenko [271]. The method was illustrated with travel-time curves for both types of head waves for several different cases of dipping layers.

Transverse travel-time curves have been constructed for refraction and reflection shooting wherein the shot points are offset perpendicular to the line of profile. This method has been used since 1945 in the U. S. S. R. and is still being developed. In recent papers Radzhabov [272, 273] has described two techniques for determining velocities of refracting layers using transverse travel-time curves. One technique involves matching theoretical transverse

travel-time curves with observed travel-time curves. The other involves constructing travel-time curves for profiles along the same line shot from two adjacent shot points. From each shot the profiles overlap either entirely or partly. Where beds dip less than 15 percent, it was claimed, transverse travel-time curves can be used to determine dips and velocities of refracting layers. Equations were derived and graphical illustrations included in the paper.

Absorption in Explosion Seismology: Absorption of elastic waves in rocks is a property the Soviets have utilized effectively. Soviet investigations on absorption include seismic models, laboratory specimens of rocks, and field investigations. The most precise technique for determining absorption of rocks *in situ* has been with ultrasonic pulses in bore holes [274]. Such techniques have been developed at the Institute of Earth Physics.

In the late 1940's, Soviet investigations began to include measurements of amplitude in conjunction with seismic velocity and time. The amplitude variations were a measure of wave attenuation, which includes absorption. Such amplitude measurements, in conjunction with frequency analyses, resulted in the Soviet "dynamic" characteristics of seismic waves. These are in contrast to the Soviet kinematic measurements, which refer only to velocity and time. Since amplitude measurements are apparently obtained regularly in Soviet seismic work, absorption investigations are made routinely.

In the early 1950's several significant papers appeared on absorption from field studies. Ye. V. Karus wrote his Candidate's dissertation on absorbing properties of rocks in their natural occurrence by seismo-acoustic methods (Geophysical Institute, 1951). This work was continued by Karus and Pasechnik [275]. Yerinat'yeva [57] described methods for determining the difference in absorption coefficients from seismic waves. Riznichenko has also investigated the absorption of seismic waves, based on propagation through various media with different boundary conditions.

A significant Soviet investigation on absorption from field measurements concerns the incomplete masking of crystalline basement rocks by a thick section (several hundred feet) of limestone overlying basement rock of approximately the same velocity. Vasil'yev and co-workers [232] have shown that low-frequency refraction arrivals can be obtained from both the overlying limestone and the basement, but that absorption of the seismic waves is measurably higher in the limestone than the underlying basement.

Another paper concerns absorption coefficients in aquiferous sands as a criterion of water content. Berzon and co-workers [43] have used high-frequency refraction-correlation methods

to differentiate a water-bearing sand from adjacent layers. It was found that the velocity of propagation in the sand was approximately constant throughout the area, but that its absorption coefficient varied over the area. These variations were found to be due to porosity and lithology variations.

Isochronal Methods of Interpretation: Isochronal methods concern plotting equal arrival-times of reflected and refracted waves as functions of horizontal distance from source. These techniques are of secondary importance, but have been described in several Soviet publications. A good review of isochronal techniques used in reflection shooting appears in Chapter 3 of the book by Puzyrev [71]. Somewhat earlier articles appear in the periodical literature. Timoshin [276] has described graphical methods of interpretation of isochronics. Berzon [277] has discussed isochronal methods of refracted waves, demonstrating that this method is applicable in areas of gentle dip with only plane interfaces.

Multiple Reflections: An early Soviet paper on multiple reflections was by G. A. Gamburtsev in 1945. During the early 1950's a number of papers have appeared by Yerinat'yeva and by Berzon. A summary of multiple reflections appears in Chapter 3 of the book by Puzyrev [71]. Analyses are given of simple and complex multiple reflections.

The difference in frequency content between multiple and simple reflections has been investigated by Yerinat'yeva and Mikhaylova [278]. Investigations in an area of good multiple reflections, where a layer at a 2,400-foot depth with a reflection coefficient of 0.3 provided many multiple reflections, demonstrated that single and multiple reflected waves were indistinguishable when recorded on conventional seismographs. With both high-frequency and low-frequency recording equipment, however, a larger number of single reflections were recorded by the high-frequency instruments. The effectiveness of high-frequency filtering for suppressing multiple reflected waves was also noted in another publication by Yerinat'yeva [279]. A mathematical investigation of multiple reflections of waves within a layer compared to single reflection from a greater depth has been made by Zvolinskiy [280]. Simplifying assumptions included reflection coefficients at the upper and lower boundaries of the layer.

Constructive interference of multiple reflections within a series of thin layers has been investigated by Yerinat'yeva [281]. Such constructive interference waves the author calls "summary" waves. For certain ratios of wave length, velocity, and thicknesses of the sequence of layers, constructive interference will produce reflected waves with larger amplitudes than a simple reflection from the top of the layer.

sequence. In typical areas, where it can be assumed that the acoustic impedance increases with depth and the reflection coefficient is the same at each boundary, it was found that the number of reflecting strata required for the generation of summary waves increased as the reflection coefficient became smaller. For the previous assumption, it was calculated that amplitudes of summary waves are greater than those of simple reflected waves if the reflection coefficient is less than 0.02.

Velocity Determinations in Explosion Seismology

Soviet literature is extensive on velocity determinations from bore-hole shooting, bore-hole continuous logging, seismic reflection shooting, and seismic refraction shooting. The main Soviet contributors in this field are Yu. V. Riznichenko, I. S. Berzon, A. M. Yelin'at'yeva, N. N. Puzyrev, and N. I. Khalevin. The more pertinent papers are mentioned here.

In 1948, Ye. F. Savaren'skiy investigated the errors in functions which express velocity of longitudinal waves as a function of depth. In 1953, Riznichenko [282] published on seismic velocities in stratified media. Berzon [283] has determined refraction velocities in some metamorphic and some crystalline rocks and has obtained equations for effective velocities in areas where velocity changes with depth [284].

Borehole Velocity Determinations: Seismic velocities have been determined in the Soviet Union by conventional well shooting methods for many years. More recently velocity logging techniques have also been adopted.

A book on well shooting for petroleum geophysicists was written in 1957 by Puzyrev [285], "The Measurement of Seismic Velocity in Drill Holes". Petkevich [286] has described co-ordination of data from well shooting with surface reflection shooting so as to identify seismic reflecting layers. From corresponding amplitude measurements of waves recorded in the borehole and reflected at an interface, reflection coefficients were calculated. This technique was used in the pre-Carpathian depression.

An instrument for well-velocity shooting was described by Mozzhenko [287] in 1959 which consists of a new small-diameter seismometer with a 6 cps natural frequency. This instrument has been used in drill holes down to depths of 6,000 feet. A sketch of the instrument is included in the paper.

Continuous velocity logging with ultrasonic instruments has been developed in the Soviet Union by several different organizations since 1953. Soviet logging with ultrasonic methods thus lags by several years development in the United States. This is unexpected, for the

Soviets have had considerable interest in differentiating rock properties and have had the capability in ultrasonics.

Riznichenko and co-workers [274] were investigating pulse-type ultrasonic seismic logging techniques before 1956. Karus and Tsukernik [288] have described an apparatus, including electronic circuits, developed at the Institute of Earth Physics, for ultrasonic logging in boreholes. This instrument can be used at temperatures not exceeding 40°-50°C, which means the instrument can be used down to depths of approximately 1 to 1.2 km. Two receivers were used. Interesting results with this apparatus were described in the paper, including identification of waves as PSP, PPP, and measurements of their amplitudes. From velocities of longitudinal and transverse waves, it was shown that Poisson's ratio could be determined within 5 percent. Other investigations from these data included frequency spectra analyses, wave-length determinations, and absorption in rocks from amplitude measurements.

Khalevin has described work on acoustic logging since 1953 at the Mining Geological Institute [289] of the Ural section of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences. A pulsed source could be generated by magnetostrictive transducers, piezoelectric crystals, sparks, electromagnet hammers, or other emitters. The source used in cased boreholes was an electromagnet hammer, which provided a tapping on the casing wall. The receiving units were Rochelle salt crystals.

Velocity Determinations from Reflection Methods: The $T^2 \cdot X^2$ method, based on travel-time data, is commonly used. This method is described in Chapter 6 (70 pages are devoted to various aspects of velocity determinations) in the book by Puzyrev [71]. In a separate paper, Ryazanova [290] has described refinements of velocity determinations from reflection seismograms. Puzyrev [291] has investigated the effect of the curvature of the reflecting surface on the velocities calculated from travel-time curves and has also investigated [292] numerical methods for determining velocities from reflection data.

Murisidze [293, 294] has described a technique for obtaining average velocities by obtaining reflections from the same layer recorded along a common profile which was shot at both ends of the profile. The resultant travel-time curves he calls "overtaking travel-time curves". This method is applicable in areas where conventional reflection travel-time curves cannot be obtained over the required seismic spread length. It is claimed that this method has been used successfully since 1950 in several geophysical surveys in the Georgian S. S. R. Gurvich [295] has also published on a graphical-analytical method for determining effective ve-

locities of reflected waves using travel-time curves corresponding to a common profile with shots at either end of the line.

Velocity Determinations from Refraction Methods: Soviet methods for obtaining velocities from seismic refraction shooting are based on travel-time curves. These are standard techniques and have been described in the books by Gamburtsev, et al [210] and by Berzon [211].

Lyakhovitskiy [296] has investigated methods for determining geologic sections from refraction-correlation travel-time data. A method was proposed for determining the average velocity of an overburden section by refraction-correlation shooting, so that overburden thickness can be determined more accurately. The method is applicable in areas where the overburden medium contains one or more higher velocity layers. The method attempts to obtain a single layer equivalent for a multi-layered medium. The method provides a better approximation to actual conditions than the assumption of a homogeneous overburden with a velocity obtained from travel-time curves. This method was developed by Lyakhovitskiy in 1955 to interpret seismic data for a hydroelectric project along the Belaya River.

Matveyev and Martyanov [297] have investigated velocities in lignite, bituminous, and anthracite coals with ultrasonic refraction methods and found that the velocities were functions of the rank of coal. It was shown that anisotropy exists in coal seams; velocities were higher along the bedding than across it. Velocities of rocks along a surface outcrop were measured by Khalevin [235] with refraction methods. Elastic constants were also calculated from these velocities. A weight falling 2 meters was used as a source and piezoelectric crystals as receivers. Velocity measurements of longitudinal waves were reliable although Rayleigh waves were determined less accurately. The character of the surface waves was found to be affected by the condition of excitation. Results were in good agreement with laboratory data.

Seismoelectric Effect

The seismoelectric effect refers to the generation of electromotive forces by elastic waves in the ground. Since electromagnetic waves generated at an earthquake focus by the seismoelectric effect would travel many times faster than seismic waves, the existence of electric ground waves might be an indication of later seismic arrivals. Accordingly, the seismoelectric effect might have application in earthquake warnings, and it was because of this that the Soviets investigated the seismoelectric effect. Numerous field experiments have been made in the U. S. S. R. to determine the magnitude of this effect. Early Soviet workers in this field are A. G. Ivanov and Ye. I.

Frenkel'. More recent work has been done by Ye. I. Parkhomenko and co-workers.

Volarovich and Parkhomenko [298-300] have investigated the piezoelectric effect in rocks between 1954 and 1957. It was found that this effect is significant in quartz-bearing rocks, such as granite, gneiss, quartzite, sandstone, and quartz. The piezoelectric effect was found to be a function of crystallographic orientation of the quartz grains. A measurable seismoelectric effect was observed in most rocks. More recently Volarovich and Parkhomenko [301] have shown that models provide significant means for studying the seismoelectric effect.

Although the primary purpose of the Soviet seismoelectric studies were to aid in the detection of earthquakes, it has been suggested by Parkhomenko that seismoelectric properties of rocks might be used to develop new methods of geophysical prospecting, directed toward identifying quartziferous rocks.

Instrumental Seismology

The broad aspects only of Soviet seismic instrumentation are mentioned, including instruments used in earthquake seismology, explosion seismology, and for miscellaneous recordings. Brief histories of the development of Soviet instrumental seismology were discussed in 1957 by Kirnos [302] and Savarenskiy [115]. Several other publications also include information on development of various instruments.

Earthquake Instruments

Descriptions of Soviet earthquake instrumentation as of 1955 have appeared in Part 2 of the book by Savarenskiy and Kirnos [116], "Elements of Seismology and Seismometry". In another 1955 book by Kirnos [303], "Some Problems of Instrumental Seismology", the design, operational characteristics, and construction of certain Soviet seismographs have been described in detail. Descriptions of more recent Soviet earthquake seismographs have appeared in the periodical literature.

The Soviets have developed three types of earthquake seismographs. One is for recording all types of waves from both distant and local shocks, the second is for recording only local shocks, and the third for recording strong earthquakes near their epicenters.

Soviet seismographs for recording distant and local shocks, which the Soviets refer to as seismographs of a general type, are electrodynamic (moving-coil) types of instruments. Instruments for recording local shocks, which the Soviets refer to as seismographs of the regional type, are short-period electrodynamic instruments with galvanometric recording having a high magnification over a narrow frequency range. Strong motion seismographs

for recording destructive earthquakes near epicenters consist of horizontal pendulums with mechanical recording.

Descriptions of Earthquake Seismographs: An outline of Soviet instruments for recording earthquakes includes:

1. Seismographs for recording distant and local shocks (seismographs of the general type).
 - a. SVK and SGK vertical and horizontal component Kирnos types of seismographs. These are electrodynamic seismographs with galvanometric recording designed to provide a peak magnification of approximately 900 over a wide frequency range. Recording through a short-period galvanometer (GK-VI) provides a nearly uniform magnification for periods from 0.1 to 12 seconds. Longer periods (up to 30 seconds) can be obtained when recording through long-period (M-21) galvanometers. Magnification curves for these instruments have appeared in the literature [116, 304, 305]. The Kирnos instruments were first developed in the late 1940's and are now the standard recording instrument used at the principal Soviet earthquake recording stations.
 - b. SVK-M and SGK-M vertical and horizontal component modernized SVK and SGK types of seismographs. These are 2.5 second-period instruments with high magnifications over a narrower frequency range. Peak magnifications of about 25,000 can be achieved at a period of 1 second when connected to a GK-VI type of galvanometer. Magnification curves are illustrated in an article by Pasechnik and Fedoseyenko [304, Figure 2], and were discussed by Pasechnik [117, Figure 4] at the 1959 Geneva Conference. These instruments were developed in 1951 and are now recording at several U. S. S. R. stations.
 - c. VSG and GSG vertical and horizontal component Golitsyn types of seismographs. These are older electrodynamic seismographs with galvanometric recording. Descriptions of these seismographs are included in the book by Savarenskiy and Kирnos [116], "Elements of Seismology and Seismometry". They are no longer in common use.
- d. SN Nikiforov types of seismographs. These are older electrodynamic instruments with optical recording. These were once the common Soviet earthquake recording instruments, but since the late 1940's have been replaced with the Kирnos units. Only a few SN instruments remain in service. Descriptions of these instruments appear in the book by Savarenskiy and Kирnos [116].
- e. SI types of seismographs. These were designed by the Seismological Institute of the U. S. S. R. Academy of Sciences. These are older electrodynamic seismographs, apparently no longer in use.

2. Seismographs for recording local shocks (regional types of seismographs).
 - a. VSKh and GSKh vertical and horizontal component Kharin types of seismographs. These are short-period electrodynamic instruments recording through galvanometers. They have high magnification over a narrow frequency range, with maximum peak magnifications ranging from 20,000 to 60,000 at a period of approximately 0.3 seconds. The recording range is for periods of 0.15 to 0.35 seconds. Magnification curves for these instruments are illustrated in Figure 97, Part 2, of the book by Savarenskiy and Kирnos [116], and also in Figure 2 in the article by Rustanovich [118]. The Kharin seismographs are widely used at Soviet earthquake stations which are located in areas of high seismicity.
 - b. VEGIK electrodynamic seismographs and are used in a number of Soviet stations for recording local shocks. These seismographs have a somewhat broader magnification curve than the Kharin seismographs, although the peak magnification is less. Typical maximum magnifications are 7,000 over periods of 0.2 to 0.9 seconds. A typical magnification curve appears in Figure 1 of the article by Rustanovich [118].
3. Strong-motion seismographs for recording earthquakes near an epicenter.
 - a. SMR-II strong-motion seismograph. This instrument consists of a horizontal pendulum with mechanical recording and electromagnetic damping. This seismograph re-

cords ground motion from 0.2 to 9 seconds, has a static magnification of approximately 7.2 and is designed for earthquakes of intensity less than 7 (weak to moderate earthquakes). This instrument has been described, with magnification curve included, in the book by Kirnos [303], "Some Problems of Instrumental Seismology".

b. SRZ-I strong-motion seismographs. These instruments consist of horizontal pendulums with mechanical recording, electromagnetic damping and auxiliary magnifying levers. Both long-period and short-period SRZ-I instruments have been designed. The long-period instrument records up to 3-second periods and the short-period instrument records about 0.3-second periods. The static magnification of both instruments is approximately one. Descriptions of these instruments appear in the book by Kirnos [303].

The only Soviet long-period instruments currently in operation are the SVK and SGK Kirnos seismographs recording through long-period (M-21) galvanometers [305, 155]. These permit recording of waves with periods of 30 seconds and more. Although the Soviets do not have an operative long-period seismograph to record waves with periods from 60 to 600 seconds or more, there was considerable discussion of current Soviet design and testing of long-period seismographs at both the 1st and 2nd Extended Seminar of the Institute of Earth Physics, U.S.S.R. Academy of Science, on the Study of Seismic Surface Waves [21] (December 1, 1957 and October, 1958). S. I. Nikonorov there described a long-period instrument currently being designed and tested at the Simferopol' seismic station, which consists of a 70-second period seismometer recording through a 35-second period galvanometer. Its maximum magnification is 800 at 50-second periods, and has magnifications of 400 at 100 seconds, 100 at 200 seconds, and 36 at 300 seconds [21]. Kirnos discussed at the Seminar a long-period seismograph program that the Seismological Department of the Institute of Earth Physics has been developing since 1957. Experimental models of vertical seismographs have been recording waves with 100-200 second periods. The Seismological Department has also designed, but presumably not tested, a seismograph for recording waves with periods of 400-500 seconds.

The important SVK and SGK instruments were designed with broad amplitude characteristics in order to determine true periods and amplitudes of ground motion, which provide the data needed for interpretation of the dynamic characteristics of waves. Kirnos and Kondor-skaya [306] have calculated the true values of first amplitudes of ground motion from record-

ings with these instruments. These seismographs have also been used to record waves with periods up to 30 seconds (recording through an M-21 type long-period galvanometer) in a significant study on surfact waves [305]. The peak magnifications of the SVK and SGK seismographs are, however, so small (900) that weak earthquakes and distant earthquakes are recorded only by a small number of stations, and sometimes only by the station nearest the epicenter. It was to obtain more widespread recording of earthquakes that the SVK-M and SGK-M seismographs were designed and constructed.

The operational characteristics of the short-period Kharin and VEGIK seismographs have been described by Rustanovich [118]. Short-period seismographs have been used successfully by Andreyev and Shebalin [307] in identifying and distinguishing such waves as the PS reflected from the deeper discontinuities in the crust. The conventional long-period seismographs would not be as suitable for detecting such waves, nor for determining depths to shallow discontinuities.

Kharin and Rulev [308] have described a strong-motion seismograph to be used near earthquake epicenters and near large explosions which can measure ground displacements up to 10 centimeters at frequencies from 1.5 to 50 cps. The instrument consists of an inverted pendulum with electrical windings on its axis of rotation. Recordings of an oscillograph vary linearly with ground displacements. Another seismograph for recording strong motion, described by Medvedev [309], consists of a spherical pendulum suspended on a tripod which has a natural period of about 0.25 seconds. Polar diagrams of deflections provide a measure of ground motion. Recordings of an 1,800 ton explosion at a distance of 600 meters are included in the paper. A third type of strong-motion instrument, a short-period vertical seismograph with magnetic restoring force has been described by Popov [310]. The amount of damping and amplification of this seismograph can be varied widely, and the instrument is sturdy enough for use near destructive earthquakes.

Inclined seismometers, used for azimuthal recording at temporary stations, have been described in several papers. Gamburtsev and Gal'perin [311] have discussed these instruments in a 1954 paper, *Pasechnik* [312] in a 1956 article, and Savarenskiy and Kirnos [116] in their book, "Elements of Seismology and Seismometry". Inclined seismometers for azimuthal investigations do not appear to have as high a resolving power as properly spaced arrays.

Few Soviet papers pertained to strain seismographs, although during the 1940's several papers were noted. One was by Veshnyakov

[313], which described an instrument quite similar to the Benioff strain seismograph.

A seismic energy meter for measuring earthquake energy has recently been described by Belotelov, Veshnyakov, and Zhilyaev [314]. The instrument consists of three strongly damped mutually perpendicular seismographs which act as velocity meters, and includes functional converters and integrators. Significant measurements have been made in tests. Rykov [315] has recently described another energy-measuring device. This instrument automatically measures the square of the velocity of ground displacement, which it then integrates with respect to time. A light beam illuminates an area which is proportional to the square of the original deflection of the galvanometer, this is amplified with a photoelectric amplifier, and the amplified deflection is then integrated. Laboratory tests with this instrument have indicated significant measurements.

Instrumentation for Explosion Seismology

Seismic instrumentation used in Soviet explosion seismology as of 1954 has been summarized in the book by Gurvich [209]. Amplifiers, filtering circuits, automatic volume control units, galvanometers, oscillographs, and auxiliary instrumentation are included. Two types of seismometers are described, the SP-7 moving-coil type of seismometer and the SP-10 variable-reluctance type. Slutskovskiy [316] has described results of field and laboratory tests of several different Soviet seismographs in use by 1955. Numerous articles have concerned conventional seismometers and other instruments used in routine explosion seismology. These are not discussed here.

The NS-1, a 3.5 cps low-frequency exploration seismometer, including frequency characteristic curves and instrument design, has been described by Kovalev [230]. This instrument was developed in 1956 at the Institute of Earth Physics for low-frequency refraction-correlation investigations. It is more sensitive at low-frequencies than the Soviet seismometer model SEDS (natural frequency of 12 cps) or the more commonly used seismometer model SP-16 (natural frequency of 33 cps). By comparison, the VEGIK seismograph has a natural frequency of 1.5 cps. An earlier low-frequency electrodynamic seismometer is the SPSh, which is a broad-band instrument. Polshkov and Bereza [317] have reported that this seismometer, used with a broad-band filter, results in an output with better resolution and less frequency distortion than can be obtained with the conventional SS-24-48 or the high-frequency SS-26-51D apparatus.

Groshevov and Pasechnik [318] have described a high magnification exploration seismometer

in which high magnification is obtained by recording over a narrow frequency band near the seismometer resonant frequency. With sensitive galvanometers instrument magnifications as high as 1,000,000 can be achieved. Use of special amplifiers is not required and phase distortion is thus reduced.

Many papers pertain to optical systems for photographic recording, resonance phenomena of seismometers, various types of oscillographs, coupling factors between seismometers and galvanometers systems, phase and amplitude distortion in seismic apparatus, amplifiers, amplifier circuits, automatic gain control in seismic amplifiers, amplifiers designed for marine work, pressure pickups, piezoelectric instrumentation, ultrasonic instrumentation, and vibration platforms.

A comparison of the effects of transient pulses and steady-state sources upon seismic exploration equipment has been described by Melamud [319]. The investigation concerned the effects of different lengths of input signals upon the seismic apparatus. For a short input signal (less than "one period" in length), it was found that the apparatus was governed by its dynamic parameters. For an input of 3 periods or more, the apparatus was governed by its stationary characteristics.

A 52-channel seismic recording field unit has been described by Mozzhenko [320] in a 1955 paper. In a later paper, a 60-channel recording field unit, especially for refraction-correlation recordings, has been described by Aksenenovich, Gal'perin, and Zayonchkovskiy [231]. Various types of seismometers and the amplifying circuits used in the 60-channel recording unit were described.

Soviet exploration equipment is apparently designed to provide for a mixing of channels. Priyma [321] has proposed improvements in the performance of the 60-channel seismic recorder model PPS-60M by expanding its mixing scheme. Methods were described and circuit diagrams included to permit one channel to record energy from the adjacent 3 or 4 channels.

Magnetic Tape Recording: The earliest Soviet publication noted on magnetic tape recording is that by Groshevov [322], pertaining to the design and calculation of magnetic systems for geophysical instruments. A recent paper on recording with magnetic tape is that by Melamud, Khudzinskii and Deinega [323]. Frequency-modulated magnetic-recording units have been constructed which consist of a 9-channel magnetic recording and reproducing unit, with corresponding amplifiers, and a 9-channel conventional recording unit, with a separate set of amplifiers. A wide range of filters can be used in conjunction with the tape recording so that records can be obtained anywhere within

the frequency range of 20 to 500 cps. The circuits can also be modified to permit recording at frequencies below 20 cps for low-frequency refraction shooting. The magnetic tape unit is claimed to be distortion-free and is therefore well suited for studying the dynamic characteristics of seismic waves. These units have been mounted on field trucks and other portable units can also be developed.

Other Instruments

Several Soviet stations have installed the Bonchkovskiy type tiltmeters. These are horizontal pendulum instruments in which the pendulum is maintained in an almost horizontal position by thin torsion wires that permit some rotation. These tiltmeters are illustrated in Part II, Figure 42, of the book by Savarenskiy and Kirnos [116], "Elements of Seismology and Seismometry". The Gamburtsev tiltmeter is another type which consists of a combination of vertical and horizontal pendulums. It is also illustrated in the book by Savarenskiy and Kirnos [116], Figure 43a, and has been described by Gamburtsev [324] in the periodical literature. In 1954, Bonchkovskiy and Namsara [325] made an analysis of the precision of tiltmeters.

Bonchkovskiy [326] described instruments in 1955 that can measure slow movements of the earth's surface. Also in 1955, Bonchkovskiy and Latynina [327] described an instrument for measuring angular displacement between two rigid bodies. This apparatus consisted of two piers with in-line bars connected to each pier. A thin cylindrical rod was placed between the ends of the bars and slightly squeezed. It was possible to measure small angular displacements in this cylinder. In 1957, Bonchkovskiy and Karmaleyeva [328] analyzed the effect of fiber torsion on the readings of pendulum clinometers. It was concluded that there was a reading range over which distortion due to fiber torsion was negligible.

Shakurov [329] has described a recent apparatus, which is still in an experimental stage, for determining small tilts of the earth's surface. It utilized two discs of identical large curvature, held apart at a distance of approximately 0.1 micron by injected gas streams. The lower disc is attached to the housing and moves with a small tilt of the ground. The upper disc will "swim" on the surface of the lower disc. Thus, a tilt produces a change in relative positions of the discs. Angles as small as 0.02 seconds of arc have been measured in models of this instrument.

Electrodynamic microbarographs have been described in a paper by Pasechnik and Fedoseyenko [330], which measure atmospheric fluctuations and relate them to microseismic background. The construction and operation of two different microbarograph models were de-

scribed. In one model, a displacement of a bronze membrane on one side of a hermetically sealed chamber is measured by an electrodynamic transducer and recorded through galvanometers. The second model is similar to that which has been used by Gutenberg and Benioff in the United States for a number of years.

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MINERALOGY OF CLAYS FROM THE ODESSA COAST OF THE BLACK SEA¹

By

Ye. F. Sidorenko²

• translated by Royer and Roger, Inc. •

ABSTRACT

A study was made of the clay belonging to the Upper Miocene (bluish-gray clay), Upper Pliocene (reddish-brown clay), Holocene and Pleistocene (loess-like clay) from the landslide district near Odessa. The investigation has shown that the clays of these three units are not monomineralic and that each one has features indicating the prevalence of hydromica or montmorillonite as the main rock-forming mineral. Thus, hydromica is dominant in the blue-gray clay, while montmorillonite prevails in those that are reddish-brown and loess-like. These deductions have been fully confirmed by calculation of the size of the basic cells. --auth.

Landslides of different shape and size often develop on the Black Sea Coast near Odessa. One such great landslide occurred on July 19, 1957 at Odessa, in the vicinity of the 13th Bolshoy Fontan Station (fig. 1). It was investigated by L. N. Kudrin and this author, who concluded after their investigation, that there had been a collapse in the slide area.

Since landslides usually develop in stratified clay deposits, the author made a detailed mineralogical investigation of the clay at the site of the landslide on the supposition that this would, to some extent, help to understand the reasons for the occurrence of the landslide.

The stratigraphic section, taking into ac-



FIGURE 1. Photograph of landslide near the 13th Station of Bolshoy Fontan, July 20, 1957. Photograph by Chernoivanov S.

count the facies in the region of the landslide, is as follows, according to L. N. Kudrin (from top to bottom):

1. Holocene and Pleistocene. Loess-like loam, loess-like clay, fossil soils and loess. Thickness as much as 16 meters.
2. Upper Pliocene. Levantian. Reddish-brown clay (deltaic and lacustrine facies).

¹Translated from K mineralogii glin Odesskogo poberezhya chernogo more: Mineralogichesky sbornik, no. 13, 1959, p. 220-234.

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Thickness as much as 6 meters.

3. Lower Pliocene. Lower Pontian, Odessa unit. Light gray limestone consisting of complete shells, mainly recrystallized (deposits of the upper part of the sublittoral zone, with low salinity). In certain places there are oolitic detrital limestones and marls. Thickness as much as 7 meters.

4. Upper Miocene. Meotian. Light bluish-gray and light blue clay (sublittoral deposits). Visible thickness as much as 2 meters.

We have investigated samples of light bluish-gray clay from the Meotian strata, reddish-brown clay from the Levantine deposits, and Quaternary pale yellow, loess-like soils.

The granulometric composition of the clays studied (table 1) shows that the light bluish-gray clay generally consists of clay fractions (less than 0.001 mm) and silt-size particles; it could be considered a sandy to silty clay. The reddish-

uniform in appearance and plastic; in places thin veins of brown iron oxides are present. The rock effervesces in hydrochloric acid.

Microscope study shows that the texture of the rock is fine-grained pelitic. The ground mass consists of the finest micaceous clay flakes in a felt-like texture through which angular quartz grains of irregular shape are scattered. Carbonate material is not present in noticeable concentrations in the rock, but is uniformly distributed as pelitomorphic particles. In a randomly oriented aggregate of the groundmass one can here and there see small areas with oriented clay particles.

According to granulometric composition (see table 1) the rock consists of finely dispersed sand and silt. The carbonate content is 3 percent by volume. The refractive indices of the aggregates of oriented particles <0.001 mm (which form elongated, nearly colorless anisotropic flakes) are: $\gamma=1.578$; $\omega=1.558$; $\gamma-\omega=0.020$. These refractive indices are charac-

TABLE 1. Granulometric composition of clays studied

Number in order	Type of Clay	weight of sample in gm	Size of particles in mm								
			>0.6		0.6-0.2		0.2-0.056		0.056-0.01		<0.01
			weight in gm	percent	weight in gm	percent	weight in gm	percent	weight in gm	percent	
1	Light bluish-gray clay	50	1.600	3.2	1.500	3.0	10.500	21.0	5.300	10.6	62.20
2	Reddish-brown clay	100	0.050	0.05	0.200	0.2	4.700	4.7	9.600	9.6	85.45
3	Loess-like clay	100	0.040	0.04	0.080	0.08	3.450	3.45	31.150	31.15	65.28

TABLE 1. Granulometric composition of clays studied (concluded)

Number in order	Type of Clay	Carbonates, in percent	weight of sample for separation in gm	Distribution of silt Fraction 0.2-0.056 mm according to specific gravity				Granulometric type of clay	
				Heavy		Light			
				weight in gm	percent	weight in gm	percent		
1	Light bluish-gray clay	3.0	5.000	0.003	0.06	4.997	99.94	Sandy silty clay	
2	Reddish-brown clay	5.6	4.700	0.010	0.21	4.690	99.79	Partly silty clay	
3	Loess-like clay	7.9	3.450	0.007	0.20	3.443	99.80	Silty clay	

brown clay in general consists of clay particles and is a silty clay. The composition of loess-like soil also corresponds to the composition of the silty clay.

THE LIGHT BLUISH-GRAY CLAY

The silty clay of the Meotian deposits is light bluish-gray with a touch of green. It is

teristic of hydromica, as well as of montmorillonite with an admixture of hydromica.

In the geochemical and X-ray laboratory of Lvov University absorption spectrum curves were obtained by means of an SF-2M self-registering spectro-photometer.

The absorption spectrum curve for the sus-

pension of light bluish-gray clay colored with Mg (MT) (fig. 2) has a clearly marked "doublet" maximum near $575\text{m}\mu$ and another low "ionic" maximum near $680\text{m}\mu$. On the addition of KCl, the "doublet" maximum decreases considerably and shifts to the long-wave portion near $618\text{m}\mu$, after which the "ionic" maximum becomes greater than the "doublet". The curve obtained belongs to the K(1) type and the HM type (transition to montmorillonite), and shows that montmorillonite is present in the suspension of light bluish-gray clay, in addition to the hydromica.

The photograph taken with an electron microscope (fig. 3) shows thin semi-transparent iso-

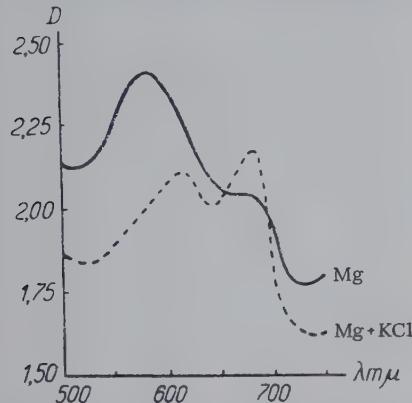


FIGURE 2. Absorption spectrum curves for suspension of light bluish-gray clay

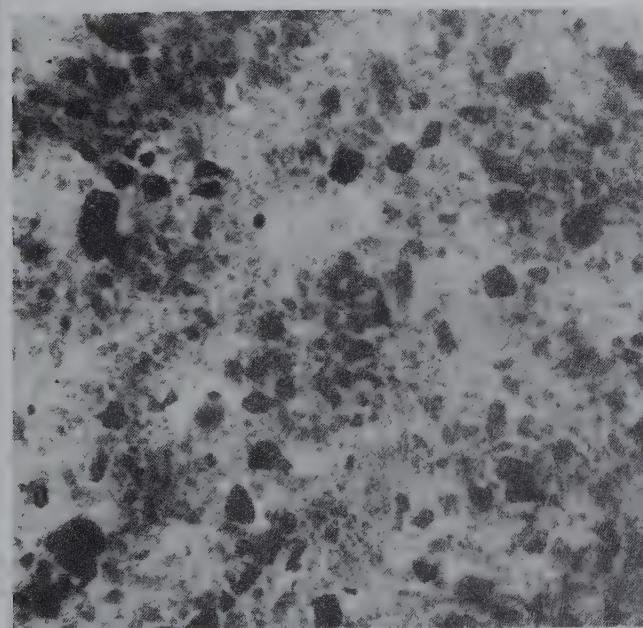


FIGURE 3. Photograph of light bluish-gray clay taken under electron microscope (12,000 x)

metric scales and particles which characterize hydromica and beidellite. The same photograph also shows small lumps with diffuse contours resembling montmorillonite. There are also large opaque particles, some of which have sharp contours, which might be unsaturated small lumps of clay or quartz.

Three endothermic effects are discernible on the heat curve (fig. 4) for the clay fraction

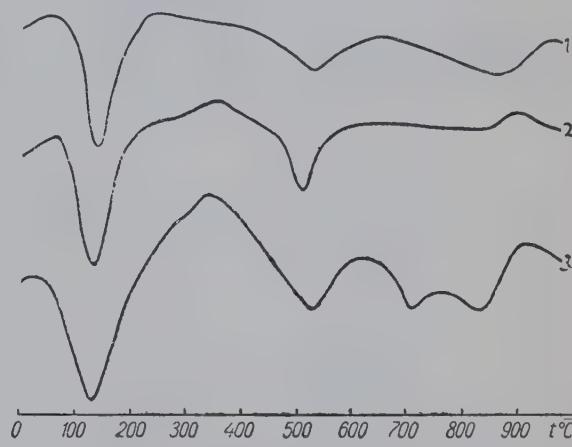


FIGURE 4. Heating curves for Odessa clays.
1- Light bluish-gray clay; 2- loess-like clay;
3- reddish-brown clay.

less than 0.001 mm: 1) a clearly marked effect at 140°C ; 2) an effect from 500 to 600°C , and 3) an effect changing to the exopeak between 900 and 1000°C .

The dehydration curves (fig. 5) complement the heat curves and show that we are dealing here both with an

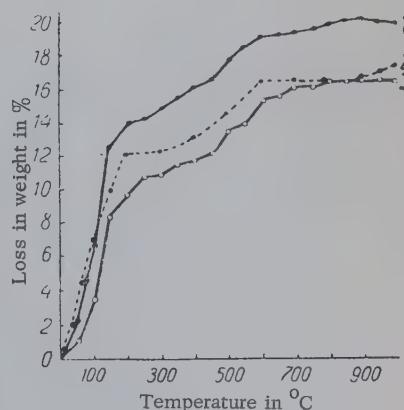


FIGURE 5. Dehydration curves for Odessa clays
1 - Reddish-brown clay; 2 - light bluish-gray clay; 3 - loess-like clay.

endothermic effect of the montmorillonite type as well as that of hydromica: The maximum quantity of water is given off before 200°C, and later at 450° to 600°C; some loss of weight (up to 1 percent) is also noticeable at 800 to 900°C.

The swelling of the clay was measured by T. M. Polonsky in the laboratory of the Department of Physical Chemistry at Lvov University, using a modified form of Freyndlikh's [Freindlich's?] device. In this device, water absorption prior to the swelling is not prevented. The swelling of the clay (fig. 6) takes place, for practical purposes, in 19 hours and gives a

By this system of computation, the light blue clay (table 2) proved to be closest to hydromica in chemical composition. On this basis the analysis was computed for oxygen 12.

The X-ray data (table 3) confirms that hydromica predominates in bluish-gray clay and that quartz and montmorillonite are also present.

The hydrogen index of the clays was determined potentiometrically, using a glass electrode, by the water suspension method by T. M. Polonsky; the ratio of water to clay was 2.5:1. This method was recommended by the Inter-

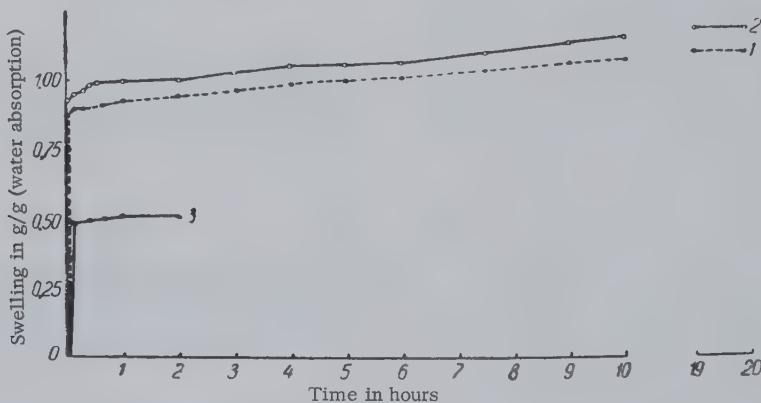


FIGURE 6. Swelling curves for Odessa clays
1 - light bluish-gray clay; 2 - reddish-brown clay; 3 - loess-like clay.

a value of 1.8 g/g or, taking into consideration the quantity of water absorbed, 0.4 g/g, the total quantity of water is equal to 0.78 g/g (78 percent); this shows that the clay swells by a factor of less than 2.

A chemical analysis of the clay fraction <0.001 mm was made by B. M. Turkevich in the laboratory of the Institute of Geology of Mineral Deposits of the Academy of Sciences of the Ukrainian SSR. When computing the chemical composition, we conditionally estimated the ignition loss as a quantity of water (H_2O). The carbonates were removed during preparation of the clay fraction less than 0.001 mm. Whenever P_2O_5 and sulphur were present, they were removed by the addition of the correct quantities of calcium and iron oxide necessary to form apatite and pyrite. Since our clays are not monomineralic the conversion was made conditionally. Whenever the chemical analysis showed more than 3 percent K_2O (taking into account the SiO_2 and H_2O content), we assumed the predominance of hydromica in the clay and made computations on the basis of hydromica, but when the H_2O content was less than 3 percent, we made computations on the basis of montmorillonite.

national Society of Soil Scientists. The pH value of light bluish-gray clay was determined to be 7.37.

THE REDDISH-BROWN CLAY

This clay is uniform in appearance. In a dry condition it is stony and dense. Its fracture is uneven. When cut in a moist state it has a lustrous surface. Cracks and a nutty texture are developed during drying (it breaks into different size nut-like lumps). Concretions of gypsum are present in the cracks. After drying, the fraction less than 0.001 mm greatly diminishes in volume and splits into narrow strips.

Under a microscope with parallel nicols, the clay mass is translucent with a dirty-brown and red-brown hue due to the admixture of colloidal iron oxide. With crossed nicols, an aggregate interference tint is seen. Grains of quartz and microcline are scattered through the clay.

The granulometric composition of the reddish-brown clay (table 1) shows that it is a finely-dispersed silty clay. In the heavy fraction the following minerals are present: rutile, zircon, leucoxene, apatite, anatase, tourmaline,

TABLE 2. Chemical analysis of light bluish-gray clay recalculated for hydromica
(Fraction <0.001 mm)

Oxides	Weight in percent	Number of molecules	Number of oxygen atoms	Number of oxygen atom computed for 12	Atomic Number of cations	Number of cation atoms
SiO ₂	50.62	843	1686	7.00	843	3.5
TiO ₂	0.87	011	022	0.1	011	0.05
Al ₂ O ₃	20.18	198	594	2.5	396	1.65
Fe ₂ O ₃	8.02	050	150	0.63	100	0.42
CaO	0.58	011-003=008	008	0.03	008	0.03
MgO	2.48	063	063	0.26	063	0.26
K ₂ O	3.67	039	039	0.16	078	0.33
Na ₂ O	0.13	002	002	0.01	004	0.02
P ₂ O ₅	0.17	001	—			
H ₂ O—	7.57	422	422			
H ₂ O+	4.34	356	315 356	1.31		2.62
Ignition loss	2.05	6,39				
Total	100,68		— 3342 — 463	12.00		
		Common denominator: 2879:12=240				

Using formulas:

$$y = \frac{2(A - C - 11D)}{21}; \quad X = A - 12D - 13y,$$

where $A = 3342$, $C = 778$, $D = 90$;

$$y = \frac{2(3342 - 778 - 11.90)}{21} = 150;$$

$$X = 3342 - 12.90 - 13.150 = 313;$$

$$X + y = 463; \quad C - (X + y) = 778 - 463 = 315.$$

$$X - 313 : 240 = 1.3;$$

$$y - 150 : 240 = 0.62.$$

Crystal chemical formula:

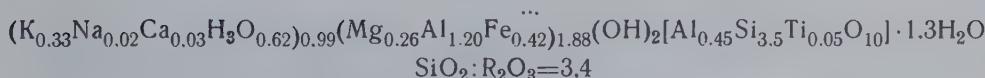


TABLE 3. X-ray data of clays studied

Number in order	Light bluish-gray clay			Reddish-brown clay			Loess-like clay			Quartz			Hydromica			Montmorillonite		
	I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$	
		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$
1	4	15.0	2	14.4	2	15.3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	001	10	~15	~15	~15
2	2	9.8	4	9.8	2	9.8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	—	—	—	—	7.2	2	7.2	—	—	—	—	—	—	002 β	2	(~8.0)	(~8.0)	(~8.0)
4	—	—	—	—	8	5	4.4	—	—	—	—	—	—	002 β	2	~7.5	~7.5	~7.5
5	10	4.5	—	—	4.5	6	4.2	1010	5	—	—	—	—	110	8	4.49	4.44	4.44
6	2	4.2	2	4.3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	022	2	4.11	4.28	4.28
7	1	3.87	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	023	2	3.85	—	—
8	1	3.72	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	114	1	3.72	—	—
9	10	3.35	10	3.33	10	3.32	1011	10	3.34	006	6	3.31	—	—	—	—	—	—
10	2	3.19	2	3.19	2	3.19	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	203	—	—	—	—
11	2	2.998	1	2.993	1	2.993	1p	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
12	2	2.880	1	2.880	1	2.857	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	205	—	—	—	—
13	1	2.786	—	—	2	2.702	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	200 β	3	—	—	(2.81)
14	—	—	—	—	2	2.702	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	200 β	3	—	—	—
15	9	2.570	9	2.567	8	2.561	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	200; 130	8	—	—	2.570
16	—	—	2	2.497	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	020 β ; 110 β	3	—	—	(4.89)
17	4	2.458	2	2.453	4	2.448	1120	4	2.456	133	4	2.44	—	—	—	—	—	—
18	4	2.382	2	2.384	2	2.377	—	—	—	—	133	6	2.38	—	—	—	—	—
19	2	2.282	1	2.277	4	2.274	1012	5	2.284	—	—	—	—	221	6	2.24	—	—
20	2	2.243	1	2.237	2	2.234	1121	2	2.234	—	—	—	—	223	2	2.190	—	—
21	1	2.193	1	2.195	1	2.176	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	043	4	2.11	—	—
22	5	2.129	3	2.126	5	2.120	2020	5	2.123	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
23	—	—	—	—	3	2.090	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
24	5	1.986	4	1.991	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	0.010	6	1.986	—	—
25	2	1.894	1p	1.888	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	141; 008
26	6	1.816	6	1.816	6	1.812	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.88
27	5	1.701	4p	1.699	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	300; 225
28	5	1.669	4	1.669	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.655
														7 _{III}	—	—	—	1.708
														1.310	—	—	—	6
														7 _{III}	1.655	—	—	1.655

TABLE 3. X-ray data of clays studied (concluded)

Num- ber in order	Light bluish- gray clay			Reddish- brown clay			Loess-like clay			Quartz			Hydromica			Montmorillonite		
	I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$	
		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$		I	$\frac{d}{n}$
29	5	1.642	4p	1.646	—	—	—	—	—	—	312	5	1.642	—	—	—	—	—
30	—	—	2	1.604	—	—	2131	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
31	6	1.541	6	1.542	6	1.539	—	8	1.537	—	060	10	1.498	—	—	—	—	—
32	10	1.502	9	1.502	7 _{III}	1.500	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.49
33	—	—	—	—	1	1.488	1.448	1123	3	1.450	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.38
34	1	1.454	3	1.452	3	1.420	—	—	—	7	1.380	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
35	—	—	2	1.380	2	1.382	—	2132	7	1.370	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
36	{2	1.380	{4	1.374	8	1.371	2023	9	—	—	335	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
37	5	1.311	{4	1.354	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
38	{2 _{II}	1.353	{2	1.354	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
39	{2 _{II}	1.336	{2	1.336	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
40	6 _{III}	1.295	6 _{III}	1.295	2	1.295	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
41	—	—	—	—	5	1.286	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
42	4 _{III}	1.247	6 _{III}	1.252	5	1.256	3032	4	—	—	0.0.16	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
43	—	—	—	—	1	1.240	—	—	—	—	—	4	1.24	—	—	—	4	1.24
44	2	1.221	2	1.229	2	1.226	2240	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
45	6	1.199	5	1.200	7	1.198	2133	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
46	6	1.180	6	1.182	8	1.180	1124	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
47	1	1.154	1	1.153	5	1.151	3141	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
48	—	—	2	1.129	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
49	—	—	1	1.113	—	—	3033	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
50	4	1.082	6	1.081	7	1.079	3142	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	1	1.064	2	1.064	3	1.062	4040	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
52	1	1.049	2	1.048	2	1.046	1015	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
53	2	1.036	4	1.035	5	1.033	2134	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
54	2	1.016	2	1.014	4	1.014	2243	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
55	2	1.008	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
56	—	—	—	—	5	0.989	4042	(a_1)	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
57	—	—	—	—	4	0.987	duplicate a_2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

pyrite, muscovite, garnet, ilmenite, staurolite, epidote, hornblende, brown ironstone, and glauconite.

The refractive indices of the aggregates of oriented particles less than 0.001 mm are: $\gamma' = 1.559$; $\omega' = 1.540$; $\gamma' - \omega' = 0.019$. The optic constants of the reddish-brown clay were determined both before and after oxalic acid treatment. The results were identical, which shows the presence of iron in a mechanical admixture. Compared to common montmorillonite, these indices are slightly higher; this appears to be due to the admixture of hydromica.

The absorption spectrum curves for the reddish-brown clay suspension can be classed as type M (1), which is characteristic of some montmorillonite clays. A maximum at about 570 μ and a low maximum in the long-wave portion at about 680 μ are observed on the curve.

The addition of KCl causes the maximum at about 570 μ to disappear and the maximum at about 680 μ to become intensified. To obtain absorption spectrum curves, the specimen of reddish-brown clay was treated with 3 percent oxalic acid to remove the iron oxide, the suspension being taken from clarified clay (fig. 7). This was the most likely reason for the difficulty in obtaining the Mg+KCl curve, since the suspension with Mg quickly settled on the addition of KCl.

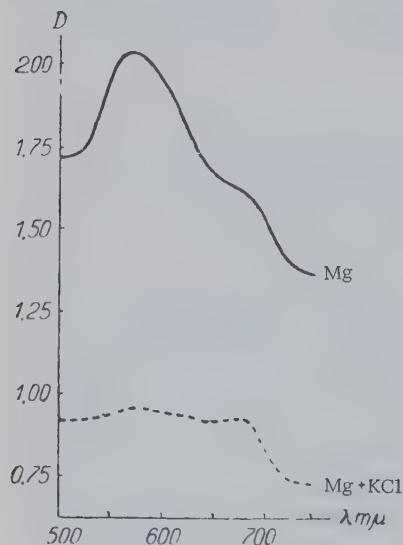


FIGURE 7. Absorption spectrum curves for suspension of reddish-brown clay

Through an electron microscope, the fraction <0.001 mm is represented by three types of particles (fig. 8):

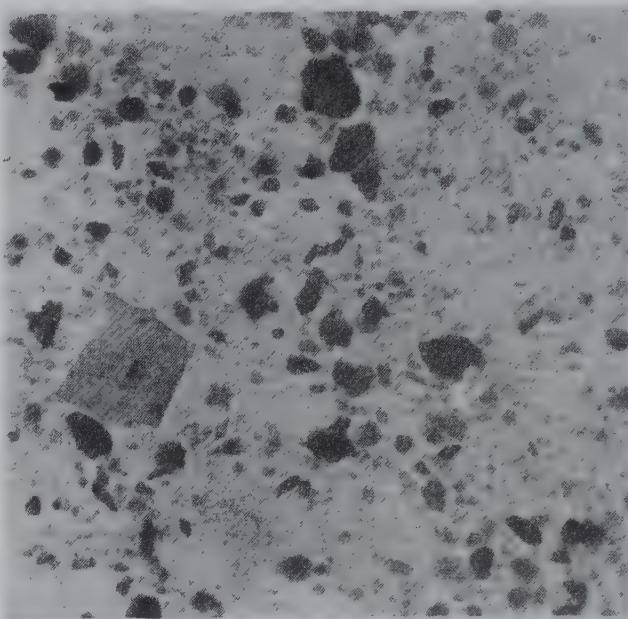


FIGURE 8. Photograph of reddish-brown clay taken under electronic microscope (12,000x)

1. Finely-dispersed semi-transparent isometric particles shaped with predominately diffuse contours. Aggregates of these particles can be observed in places.

2. Non-transparent particles with sharp contours. These are possibly quartz or iron oxide.

3. A smaller quantity of elongated semi-transparent flakes. The heat curves for reddish-brown clay (fig. 4) show three endothermic and two exothermic reactions, resembling the curve for montmorillonite. The dehydration curve (fig. 5) shows that the bulk of the water (14.2 percent) is given off below 200°C. The second portion of water (5.1 percent) is released below 600°, and a further 1.2 percent 900°. The swelling curves (fig. 6) show that the reddish-brown clay stops swelling after 19 hours. We have taken into consideration the fact that the absorbed water is partly consumed by absorption required to fill the pores of the dispersion phase and the volume between separate particles, and in the process of swelling itself. The total amount of water taken in by the reddish-brown clay, including water which is taken up in the absorption of 0.4 g/g of the solid phase, is equal to 0.85 g/g (85 percent). The data obtained have led T. M. Polonsky to class the Odessa clay as a slightly swelling clay (the volume of reddish-brown clay is only about doubled, while sodium bentonites can increase

their volume ten times or more).

Just before the chemical analysis was made, the fraction <0.001 mm of reddish-brown clay was treated with oxalic acid until the mechanically admixed iron oxides were completely removed. The analysis was made by B. M. Turke-

vich from the treated clarified clay. The free R_2O_3 content = 4.35 percent.

A determination of the quantity of water in the rock itself was also made, and gave a volume of 17.27 percent. The results of the analysis are given in Table 4. They show that the

TABLE 4. Chemical analysis of reddish-brown clay recalculated for montmorillonite (fraction <0.001 mm)

Oxides	Weight in percent	Number of molecules	Number of oxygen atoms	Number of oxygen atoms computed for 12	Atomic number of cations	Number of cation atoms
SiO_2	49.52	825	1650	8.20	825	4.1
TiO_2	0.59	007	014	0.08	007	0.04
Al_2O_3	13.23	129	387	1.93	258	1.28
Fe_2O_3	4.02	025	075	0.38	050	0.26
FeO	0.12	001	001	0.01	001	0.01
MnO	trace					
CaO	0.33	005	005	0.02	005	0.02
MgO	1.86	046	046	0.24	046	0.24
K_2O	1.49	016	016	0.08	032	0.16
Na_2O	0.76	012	012	0.06	024	0.12
P_2O_5	0.06	—				
$\text{H}_2\text{O}-$	20.10	1117	1117	1.00		2.00
$\text{H}_2\text{O}+$	8.10	450	450	201		
	100.18		$\frac{3773}{1366}$ $\frac{1366}{2407}$	12.00		

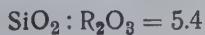
Common denominator: $2407 : 12 = 201$

To determine the absorption water we use the formula:

$$X = \frac{2mC - \kappa A}{2m - K} = \frac{2 \cdot 12 \cdot 1567 - 2 \cdot 3773}{2 \cdot 12 - 2} = 1366;$$

$$C - X = 1567 - 1366 = 201; \quad X = 1366 : 201 = 6.8.$$

Crystal chemical formula:



fraction less than 0.001 mm corresponds in its principal components to montmorillonite clay.

The pH value of reddish-brown clay is 7.86.

Lines of montmorillonite, hydromica, quartz and iron oxide were discovered on the X-ray in reddish-brown clay (table 3).

THE LOESS-LIKE CLAY

This clay is pale in color, has an earthy structure and is porous. It is uniform in appearance. It can easily be powdered between the fingers. When mixed with water, it readily forms a doughy mass; it effervesces vigorously with hydrochloric acid. In outcrops it forms stable vertical walls, which indicate considerable cohesion between the particles. The clay is riddled with vertical, branching, pipe-like pores. On the basis of its granulometric composition (table 1) the loess-like clay is a finely-dispersed silty clay. The carbonate content, computed by volume, is 7.9 percent. Magnetite was discovered in the magnetic fraction; ilmenite, tourmaline, hornblende, garnet, staurolite, leucoxene, epidote, chromite, ironstone and mica in the heavy electromagnetic fraction, and rutile, zircon, leucoxene, anatase and apatite in the heavy non-electro-fraction. The minerals of the light fraction generally consist of rounded and semi-rounded grains of quartz, mica, feldspar and chlorite.

The refractive indices of the aggregates of oriented particles in the fraction less than 0.001 mm are: $\gamma' = 1.576$; $\omega' = 1.561$; $\gamma' - \omega' = 0.015$.

These refractive indices are close to those of hydromica, but they are also close to those of montmorillonite with an admixture of hydromica.

The absorption spectrum curves for the fraction less than 0.001 mm (fig. 9) are close to

those of montmorillonite clays.

The picture taken with an electron microscope (fig. 10) shows semitransparent iso-

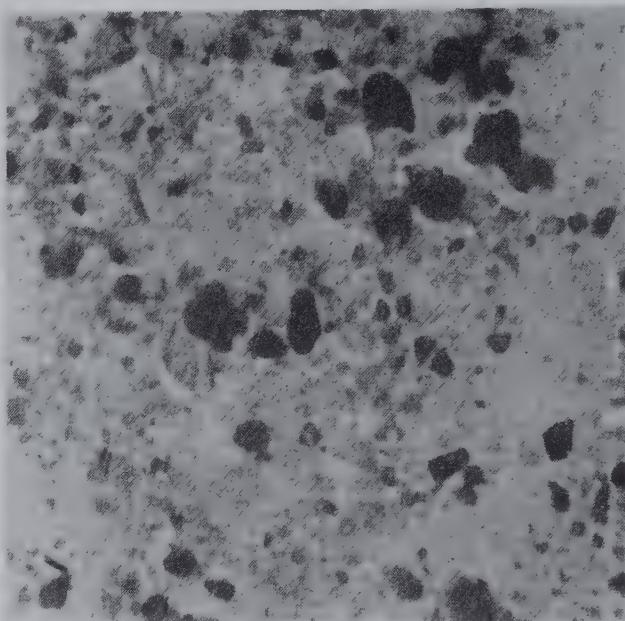


FIGURE 10. Photograph of loess-like clay taken under electronic microscope (12,000x)

metric particles with diffuse contours, or small lumps, resembling montmorillonite. Elongated semitransparent mica scales are present to a lesser extent.

Opaque or translucent particles of irregular shape with sharp contours — quartz and black point impurities, probably pyrite — are also present.

The heat curve for the fraction less than 0.001 mm is very close to the one for montmorillonite. The dehydration curve shows that the mineral loses interstitial water below 250°C, and constitutional water below 600°C.

The measurement of the swelling has shown that the process of swelling in loess-like clay is completed in one hour, and can be expressed as the volume 0.1 g/g (10 percent).

The chemical composition of loess-like clay is given in Table 5. (Analyst B. M. Turkevich).

CONCLUSIONS

The investigation of the clays determined that the clays of all three units are not monomineralic. Each clay had particular features which made it possible to speak of a predominance of hydromica or montmorillonite as the chief rock-forming minerals. For example,

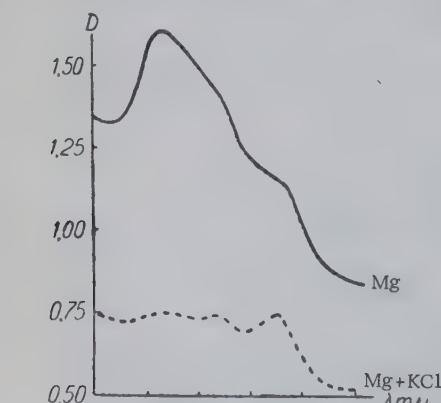


FIGURE 9. Absorption spectrum curves for suspension of loess-like clay

TABLE 5. Chemical analysis of loess-like clay recalculated for montmorillonite
(fraction <0.001 mm)

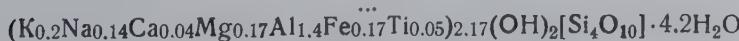
Oxides	Weight in percent	Number of molecules	Number of oxygen atoms	Number of oxygen atoms computed for 12	Atomic number of cations	Number of cation atoms
SiO_2	54.41	906	1812	8.2	906	4.1
TiO_2	0.87	011	022	0.1	011	0.05
Al_2O_3	15.78	155	465	2.1	310	1.4
Fe_2O_3	3.42	021-002-019	057	0.23	038	0.17
FeO	0.06	001-001				
MnO		not determined				
CaO	0.50	009	009	0.04	009	0.04
MgO	1.54	037	037	0.16	037	0.16
K ₂ O	1.99	021	021	0.1	042	0.2
Na ₂ O	0.93	015	015	0.07	030	0.14
P ₂ O ₅	0.03	—	—	—	—	—
H ₂ O—	13.32	739	739			
ignition loss	7.39	408	408	221	1.0	2.0
S	0.20	006				
	100.44		— 3585 — 925	12.00		
		Common denominator: 2660:12=221.				

To determine absorption water we use the formula:

$$X = \frac{2mC - \kappa A}{2m - \kappa} - \frac{2 \cdot 12 \cdot 1147 - 2 \cdot 3585}{2 \cdot 12 - 2} = 925$$

$$C - X - 3585 - 925 = 2660; \quad X = 925 : 221 = 4.2$$

Hence, the crystal chemical formula is:



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hydromica predominates in the blue-gray clay, while reddish-brown and loess-like clays are mainly montmorillonitic. These conclusions are completely confirmed by computations of the parameters of the unit cells, which have been made from our data by E. N. Yeliseyev

(tables 6 and 7).

In conclusion the author expresses his appreciation to Professor D. P. Bobrovnik and to docent M. P. Gabinet for their valuable advice in connection with the present work.

TABLE 6. Lattice parameters of clays studied compared with hydromica

Lattice in kX	Clays			Hydro- muscovite according to Strunz	Muscovite according to Mikheyev	Hydromica according to Vikulova and others
	Light bluish- gray clay	Reddish- brown clay	Loess-like clay			
a_0	5.208	5.203	5.214	5.2	5.193	5.19
b_0	9.012	9.012	9.00	9.0	8.988	8.96
c_0	19.91 \pm 0.20	19.94 \pm 0.21	19.70 \pm 0.22	20.0	20.003	20.6 (10.3x2)
β	95°59' \pm 40'	95°21' \pm 50	95°16'	96°	95°30'	101°

TABLE 7. Lattice parameters of clays studied compared with montmorillonite

Lattice parameters	Clays			Montmorillonite	
	Light bluish- gray clay	Reddish- brown clay	Loess-like clay	According to Strunz	According to Vikulova and others
a_0	5.17	5.16	5.16	5.17	5.18
b_0	9.05 \pm 0.02	9.07	8.93	8.94	8.96
c_0	15.29	15.23	15.20	15.2	10
β	97°51'	97°29'	approx 97°	90°	approx 100°

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METASOMATIC ZONALITY AND GENESIS OF SAPPHIRINE-BEARING ROCKS IN THE BUG REGION¹

By

E.B. Nalivkina

• translated by Royer and Roger, Inc. •

ABSTRACT

Precambrian sapphirine-bearing rocks were discovered in the core of a borehole on the River Bug in the zone of the metasomatic changes of the pyroxene body. Their origin is a particular case of regional granitization and takes place in connection with the formation of charnockite. The area of modified pyroxenite, 1.7 m thick in the core, has a symmetrical zonal structure and is subdivided into six subzones (in the direction to the center). I. Pyroxenite, serpentinized, carbonatized pyroxenite (initial rocks); II. Diopsidophlogopite-anorthite; III. Corundum-anorthite phlogopite; IV. Sapphirine-corundum-microcline-biotite; V. Corundum-sillimanite-sapphirine-microcline; VI. Sillimanite-sapphirine-corundum-prismatic-microcline. The minerals are not unstable together, some are replaced by others with a general tendency to forming a microcline rock. --Author's English Summary.

Rare, singular sapphirine-bearing rocks with such infrequently occurring alumina-bearing minerals as sapphirine and prismatic were found in a zone of charnockite formations along the River Bug, in the area of the former Kaptanovka. These rocks were discovered in cores of a hole bored in 1954 by the Bug Expedition of the Ukrainian Geological Administration; they represent a part of a pyroxenite altered by metasomatism. Their origin is closely associated with the formation of the charnockites. This paper will deal with the alteration of the pyroxenite into sapphirine-bearing rocks later replaced by zones of metasomatism, and the description of these minerals.

The earliest rock formations along the River Bug are Precambrian gneisses. The most widespread among these are pyroxene-plagioclase gneiss, while biotite-plagioclase, amphibiolite-plagioclase, garnet-sillimanite-cordierite-quartz, garnet-biotite, graphitic gneisses and marble are less frequently found. Large gneiss formations are encountered in the basin of the Yuzhnyy Bug River, in the area of the left tributaries of the Dniester — the rivers Murafa, Murashka, Lozovaya, etc. They occur in faults striking predominantly northwest and dipping at an angle close to 90°. The above rocks have a schistose structure, with interlayers of irregular thickness and varying composition. According to various researchers they represent a metamorphosed sedimentary-volcanogenic stratum. The gneiss strata include small conformable bodies of basic and ultrabasic rocks.

The gneisses and basic and ultrabasic intrusives have been altered by subsequent granitization, that has formed huge fields of charnockite and pink aplite-pegmatoid granites. The formation of the sapphirine-bearing rocks is a local and particular case of this process.

Alteration of pyroxenite with the formation of sapphirine-bearing rocks was discovered at the border of an ultrabasic intrusion. Henceforth this area will be designated as a "zone". The zone of altered pyroxenite exposed by the drill hole has a small thickness, of only 1.7 m, in the core. Moreover related formations were encountered in the drill cores of boreholes which exposed other ultrabasic intrusions.

The zone described has a complex symmetrically zonal structure (fig. 1). The axial part is likely to have served as a feeding channel for the solutions and consists of sillimanite-sapphirine-corundum-prismatic-microcline rocks — the end product of the alteration of pyroxenite.

The area is divided into the following six subzones from the periphery toward the center:

I. Pyroxenite, serpentinized and carbonatized pyroxenite (initial rocks).

II. Diopsidophlogopite-anorthite rocks; 25 cm thick.

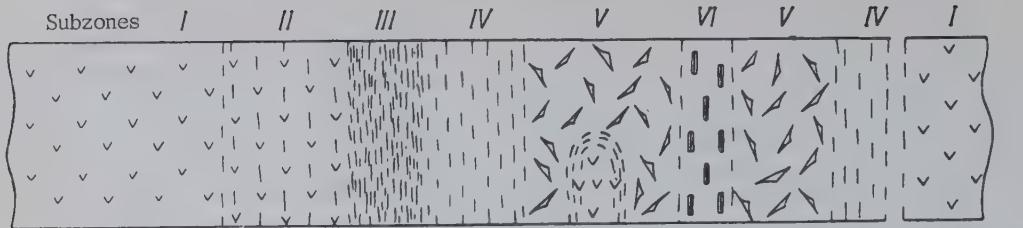
III. Corundum-anorthite-phlogopite rocks; 1.5 cm thick.

IV. Sapphirine-corundum-microcline-biotite rocks; 20 cm thick.

V. Corundum-sillimanite-sapphirine-microcline rocks; 30 cm thick.

VI. Sillimanite-sapphirine-corundum-

¹Translated from *Metasomaticeskaya zonalnost i genezis sapfirinsoderzhashchikh porod pobuzhya: Mineralogichesky Sbornik Lvovskogo Geologicheskogo obshchestva*, no. 13, 1959, p. 158-177. Reviewed for technical content by George Faust.



Scale: approximately 1:9

 - pyroxenite, serpentinized and carbonatized pyroxenite and serpentinite;
 - diopside-phlogopite-anorthite rocks;
 - corundum-anorthite-phlogopite rocks;
 - serpentinite-corundum-microcline-biotite rocks;
 - corundum-sillimanite-sapphirine-microcline rocks;
 - sillimanite-sapphirine-corundum-prismatic-microcline rocks.

FIGURE 1. Zone of metasomatic alteration of pyroxenite

prismatic-microcline rocks; 10 cm thick (central part of the area).

As previously noted, the subzones are symmetrically located with respect to the axial part; however, the rocks of subzones II and III are lacking on one side, possibly because of the incompleteness of the drill core. They are also absent in the transition from the unaltered zone (subzone I) directly to subzone IV. Transitions between subzone I, II and III are gradual. The boundary between subzones III and IV is sharply outlined, while between subzones IV, V and VI the transitions were again found to be gradual. In the case of transition from subzone I directly to subzone IV (this refers to the relict zone), the boundary is once again not sharply outlined.

The Outermost Subzone I

This subzone is composed of the original ultrabasic rocks, has a heterogeneous structure which changes irregularly over small distances, and occasionally even within a single thin section, from pyroxenite to serpentinite or carbonatized and serpentinized pyroxenite. The altered pyroxenite contains diopside, some olivine, spinel, serpentine, calcite and small quantities of phlogopite. The serpentinite is composed of antigorite, with small amounts of spinel.

The percentages of minerals contained in the altered pyroxenite vary considerably. The structure of the rocks of this subzone is as heterogeneous as their composition: in areas consisting almost entirely of diopside, the structure is panidiomorphic; in areas where calcite prevails, it is heteroblastic; in the strongly serpentinized areas, the rocks have a lath or lattice structure.

The rocks of subzone I (serpentinite) were also found in the form of relicts in subzone V where they are surrounded by the rock of subzone IV.

Subzone II

The diopside-phlogopite-anorthite rocks are uniformly granular (grain size about 0.5 mm). Their color is brown. They are composed of anorthite (40 percent), phlogopite (35 percent) and diopside (25 percent). Their structure is lepidogranoblastic.

Subzone III

The corundum-anorthite-phlogopite rocks are considerably richer in phlogopite than the rocks of the preceding subzone. They contain 60 percent phlogopite. The rest consists of anorthite, deep-colored pink corundum and individual grains of spinel. The corundum is distributed in irregular lumps, so that there are areas where it is completely absent.

The rocks have a granolepidoblastic texture; in the corundum-enriched areas it is porphyroblastic, the groundmass having a granolepidoblastic structure. Closer to the center of the zone, the corundum-anorthite-phlogopite rock is replaced by sapphirine-corundum-microcline-biotitic rock.

Subzone IV

The sapphirine-corundum-microcline-biotite rocks are composed of biotite (37 percent), microcline (45 percent), corundum (16 percent) and sapphirine. Small amounts of spinel and thin needles of sillimanite are also encountered. The rocks have a grayish-brown color, massive texture, granolepidoblastic structure with porphyroblastic areas. The porphyroblasts consist of corundum 2.5 cm in size, microcline up to 1 cm in size, and sapphirine up to 2.5 cm in size. The grain size of the groundmass is from 1.0 to 1.5 mm.

Subzone V

The corundum-sillimanite-sapphirine-micro-

cline rocks contain up to 77 percent microcline, 14 percent sapphirine, 4 percent sillimanite, 3 percent biotite and some corundum and spinel. The color of these rocks is gray bluish-gray. Their texture is massive, their structure is porphyroblastic with a granoblastic groundmass. The porphyroblasts are composed of sapphirine (2.5 mm in size), microcline (0.5 to 1 cm in size) and occasionally corundum (up to 1 cm in size). The groundmass mainly consists of microcline with grains reaching 1 to 1.5 mm in size.

Subzone VI

The central part of this zone is composed of sillimanite-sapphirine-corundum-prismatic-microcline rocks. It differs from the rocks of the preceding zone in that the spinel disappears completely, and it contains large prismatic porphyroblasts around which the sapphirine and sillimanite disappear as well.

MINERALS OF THE METASOMATIC ZONE

The mineral composition of the rocks varies from one subzone to the other. Some minerals disappear gradually and are replaced by others; other minerals are sharply and discontinuously replaced by others, while some others are found in all of the subzones, the only change consisting of a slight variation in their composition, as will be seen in the description of the minerals below.

Diopside is the rock-forming mineral of subzone I. It occurs here in comparatively idiomorphic units, in sizes up to 1.5 mm. It is colorless; $2V=+57^\circ$ and $C\wedge\gamma=40^\circ$ to 41° . In subzone II diopside is found in lesser amounts, in the form of xenomorphic grains with corroded contours. Here we only succeeded in computing $2V=+56^\circ$ (along two axes).

Olivine is found in very small amounts in the rocks of subzone I, where it is usually replaced by serpentine. We determined $2V=-87^\circ$ (along the axes) for this mineral, which corresponds to the magnesium variety.

Serpentine was discovered only in subzone I. It replaces the olivine, which is preserved only in individual cases, and diopside; in addition, it is also found in the entirely carbonatized and serpentinized pyroxenite along small cracks in the spinel grains. Serpentine is represented by fine-lamellar antigorite closely intergrown with very fine scales of a micaceous mineral, probably phlogopite. For antigorite $\gamma=1.576$; the elongation is positive. The heating curve of serpentine (fig. 2) discloses an endothermic effect at 620° and an exothermic peak at 730° to 740° . I. I. Ginzburg and I. A. Rukavishnikova indicate in their paper (1951, p. 23) that at these

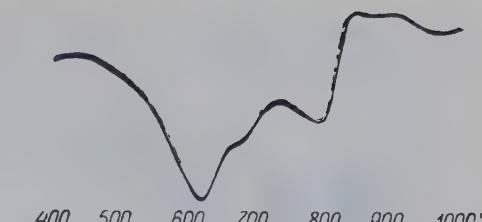


FIGURE 2. Heating curve of antigorite with admixtures of micaceous mineral

temperatures, thermal effects are characteristic of serpentines. On the curve shown here, the exothermic peak is flatter than usual in the case of serpentines. This phenomenon, as well as a series of endo- and exothermic effects at temperatures above 740° , according to V. P. Ivanova, is likely to be connected with the micaceous mineral present in the rocks.

Carbonate has also been discovered only in subzone I. Being a secondary mineral, it is thermally identified as calcite by its intense endothermic effect at 970° .

Green spinel is found in subzones I, III, IV and V. Judging by its refraction (1.754), this mineral is likely to be pleonaste. Small grains of green spinel with rounded outlines are found in subzones I and III. In the areas where serpentine is replaced by microcline, a thin rim of sapphirine appears around the spinel grains (fig. 3); this rim is much better formed in sub-



FIGURE 3. Replacement of serpentine (1) by microcline (2). Some spinel (3) with sapphirine rims (4) around it. Nicols +; magnification 8x20.

zones IV and V, where the spinel is preserved here and there in the form of "armored relicts" (fig. 4). In subzone VI the spinel is entirely replaced by sapphirine and disappears.

Small amounts of phlogopite appear in the form of fine scales in subzone I. Here it replaces diopside, and probably serpentine, with



FIGURE 4. Replacement of spinel (1) by sapphirine (2), and of sapphirine by microcline (3). Sapphirine represents disconnected portions of one grain. Nicols +; magnification 12.5x8.

which it forms very fine intergrowths. The pleochroism of the phlogopite in subzone I along $\gamma-\beta$ is light greenish-brown. Along ω it is colorless. The index of refraction $\gamma-\beta=1.606$. In subzone II phlogopite is found in fairly large amounts. Its scales are larger than those in subzone I, the pleochroism is identical to that of the phlogopite of subzone I, and the index of refraction $\gamma-\beta=1.607$. Subzone III contains even more phlogopite than the other two subzones. Here it even replaces anorthite, penetrating in denticular aggregates along the cleavages and between the grains of anorthite (fig. 5). The data from the spectrum

discontinuously replaced by biotite. However, in the transition from subzone I to subzone IV, and even V (this refers to the serpentine relict inside subzone V), the phlogopite changes gradually, its composition becoming more ferruginous, and finally turns into biotite. This is seen by comparing the indices of refraction which systematically increase from $\gamma-\beta=1.606$ through to $\gamma-\beta=1.617$; $\gamma-\beta$ from 1.624 to 1.630.

Biotite is found in subzones IV, V and VI. Toward the latter its quantity sharply decreases from 37 to 3 percent, owing to replacement by microcline. The biotite is brown; its pleochroism along $\gamma-\beta$ is reddish-brown; along α is light brown. $\gamma-\beta=1.630$. The interrelation of phlogopite with biotite in the various subzones was mentioned earlier.

Anorthite is found only in subzones II and III. In subzone II its grains are comparatively idiomorphic. Here it replaces diopside. In subzone III, as a rule, anorthite compounds are xenomorphic and are destroyed and replaced by phlogopite (cf. fig. 5). Polysynthetic twinning is characteristic of anorthite. Measurement of the twin yielded: $B\wedge\gamma=53^\circ$; $B\wedge\beta=58^\circ$; $B\wedge\alpha=53^\circ$; the Carlsbad twinning law is N95. In subzones IV, V and VI anorthite was not discovered. Its interrelation with the minerals of subsequent subzones were also not observed.

Corundum appears in subzone III and is found in subzones IV, V and VI. It forms aggregates of tabular crystals with well developed pinacoids, with laminae up to 1 cm in size (subzone III); in this subzone the corundum is likely to replace anorthite rich in alumina. Moreover it is found in microcline-corroded porphyroblasts 0.5 cm in size (subzone IV), as well as in individual microcline-corroded porphyroblasts elongated in the direction of the third crystallographic axis up to 1 cm (subzones V, VI).

It is interesting to note that the corundum changes color from a rich pink (subzone III) to pale pink (subzone IV) and light gray (subzones V and VI). Its refractive indices are also not constant: corundum of subzone III (rich pink) has $\omega=1.765$ and $\epsilon=1.760$; corundum of subzone V (light gray) has $\omega=1.757$ and $\epsilon=1.749$; i. e., the values are slightly smaller. Comparison of the spectrum analyses of the rich pink and light gray mineral varieties (see table 6) shows that the first is comparatively rich in chromium. In addition, the gray corundum has been diagnosed by X-rays. Table 1 shows the results of the X-ray analysis² juxtaposed with those of standard tests (Kovalev, 1937).

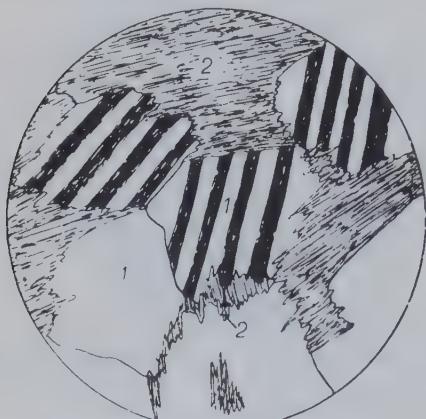


FIGURE 5. Replacement of anorthite (1) by phlogopite (2). Nicols +; magnification 12.5x8.

analysis of the phlogopite of this subzone are given in Table 6. It is noteworthy that the phlogopite of this subzone contains admixtures of Ni, Co and Cr. In the transition to subzone IV, the phlogopite of subzone III is abruptly and

²The X-ray analyses cited in this paper were made at the VSEGEI laboratory.

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TABLE 1. X-ray analysis of gray corundum

Conditions: Fe - anticathode, voltage on tube 35kV, current 12 mA. Exposure, 4 hrs. 30 min. Camera diameter 57.3 mm, diameter of a specimen column, 0.5 mm. Corrections by special photograph of mixture with NaCl.

Gray corundum of the Bug region			Gray corundum (G. A. Kovaleva, 1937), standard sample			<i>hkl</i>
<i>I</i>	$\frac{d\alpha}{n}$	$\frac{d\beta}{n}$	<i>I</i>	$\frac{d\alpha}{n}$	$\frac{d\beta}{n}$	
2	(3.79)	3.42	3	(3.81)	3.46	1012
7	3.44		7	3.46		1012
1	3.30		1	3.35		—
2	(2.77)	2.52	4	(2.81)	2.54	1014
			1	(2.61)	2.37	1120
8	2.53		9	2.54		1014
3	2.36		5	2.37		1120
1	2.32					—
2	(2.28)	2.07	4	(2.29)	2.08	1123
10	2.07		9	2.08		1123
1	(1.910)	1.730	3	(1.917)	1.740	2024
3	(1.755)	1.592	5	(1.759)	1.596	1126
7	1.729		7	1.735		2024
10	1.592		1p	1.667		—
			10	1.596		1126
2	(1.540)	1.397	4	(1.546)	1.402	2134
1	1.512		5	(1.510)	1.370	—
2	(1.507)	1.367				3030
6	1.397		8	1.401		2134
7	1.368		9	1.371		3030
						—
			1p	1.332		2027
1	1.305		2	(1.309)	1.187	2240
			1	1.272		—
			1	(1.262)	1.145	2243
7	1.235		6	1.237		101.10
			4	1.232		
1	1.207	1.095	2	(1.210)	1.096	202.10
3	1.183		6	1.186		2240
1	1.155		1	1.155		
3	1.143		6	(1.144)	1.038	2243
3	1.119		6	1.123		2138
5	1.095		7	1.096		202.10

Note: The lines on the Debye powder patterns: $d = 3.30$; 2.32; 1.272; 1.155; are those of the admixture.

A comparison of parameters of the unit cells of the gray corundum of the Bug region with

those of the standard corundum sample is given in Table 2.

TABLE 2. Parameters of corundum unit cell

Citation of paper Parameters	Gray corundum of Bug region	Gray corundum of G. A. Kovalev, 1937), Standard sample
a	$4.74 \pm 0.01 \text{ kX}$	$4.75 \pm 0.01 \text{ kX}$
c	$12.89 \pm 0.02 \text{ kX}$	$12.91 \pm 0.02 \text{ kX}$

Sapphirine was found in subzones IV, V and VI. Negligible amounts of it were also discovered in subzone I, in areas where serpentine is replaced by microcline. There it forms rims around spinel grains (fig. 3). These rims become wider in subzones IV and V (fig. 4). In addition, sapphirine is found in individual grains (subzones IV, V and VI) of tabular or columnar structure elongated along the γ -axis (fig. 6). The sapphirine formations are strongly corroded by microcline (figs. 4, 6).

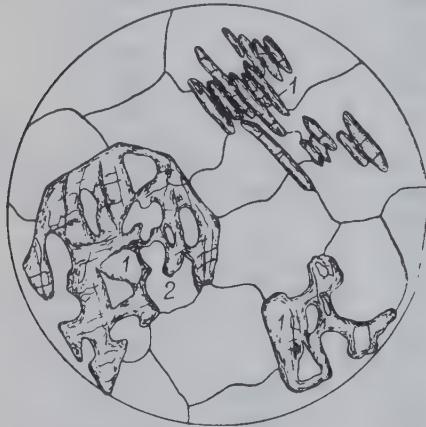


FIGURE 6. Character of sapphirine grains (1) and their corrosion by microcline (2). Without analyzer. Magnification 12.5x8.

Sapphirine has no cleavage. Its color is blue with sharp pleochroism: bright blue along γ , pale blue along β almost colorless along α . $2V = -69-70^\circ$ (along two axes); refraction: $\gamma = 1.722$; $\alpha = 1.717$; birefringence: $\gamma - \alpha = 0.005$ (computed). For a comparison of the investigated sapphirine with that of other areas, Table 3

gives their optical characteristics.

The parameters of the unit cell of sapphirine of the Bug region as compared to those of the Greenland sapphirine (verbal communication of VSEGEI collaborator A. I. Kamkov) are given in Table 4.

TABLE 4. Parameters of sapphirine unit cell

Mineral	Sapphirine of Bug region	Greenland sapphirine
Parameters		
a	9.78kX	9.78kX
b	14.37kX	14.37kX
c	9.68kX	10.00kX
β	$110^\circ 12'$	$115^\circ 15'$

The data of X-ray analysis of the Bug region sapphirine are given in Table 5. As can be seen, they are very close.

Spectrum analysis gives some idea of the chemical composition of the sapphirine (see table 6). Upon examination, one's attention is attracted by the admixture of Ni, Co, Cr; i.e., the typical elements of ultrabasic rocks.

Sillimanite was found in subzones IV, V and VI. In subzone VI it appears in the form of very thin needles on the corundum. In subzones V and VI the mineral forms columnar grains which apparently replace sapphirine. Sillimanite is in turn replaced by microcline. $2V = 27^\circ$ (along two axes).

Prismatine was formed in the axial part of the zone (subzone VI) in a small interspace. It consists of large columnar porphyroblasts several centimeters long and up to 1 cm wide. The mineral is bottle-green, almost colorless

TABLE 3. Optic properties of sapphirine

Characteristics	Bug region	Western Australia Dangin (Prider, 1945)	Western Greenland (Ramberg, 1948)	North America, Cortlandt (Friedman, 1952)
Cleavage	Absent	Absent	-	$\parallel (010)$ not clearly defined
Color	Blue	Light blue	Light blue	Blue
Pleochroism:				
along γ	Bright blue	Deep blue	-	Blue
along β	Light blue	Blue	-	Light blue
along α	Colorless	Pale, yellowish-green	-	Yellowish-green
Absorption system	$\gamma > \beta > \alpha$	$\gamma > \beta > \alpha$	-	$\gamma > \beta > \alpha$
Dispersion of elements and indicatrix	Gray, anomalous interference color	Dispersion of optical axes strong, $r < v$	-	Gray anomalous interference color
$2V$	$-69-70^\circ$	Approx. 50°	-	-
γ	1.722	-	1.7195 ± 0.001	-
β	-	1.720 ± 0.02	-	-
α	1.717	-	1.714 ± 0.001	-
$\gamma - \alpha$	0.005 (comput.)	-	0.006	-

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TABLE 5. Data of the Debye crystallogram of sapphirine

Photograph conditions: Fe - anticathode, camera diameter 85.95 mm, diameter of sample column 0.5 mm. Current, 15 mA; voltage at tube, 35 kV. Exposure, 10 hours (without filter). Corrections effected by a special photograph with NaCl.

Number	<i>I</i>	$\frac{d\alpha}{n}$	$\frac{d\beta}{n}$	<i>hkl</i>	Number	<i>I</i>	$\frac{d\alpha}{n}$	$\frac{d\beta}{n}$	<i>hkl</i>
1	5p	(3.29)	2.99		38	2p	1.370		
2	1	3.24			39	2	1.356		
3	2	3.12	2.83		40	2	1.347		
4	6	2.99		310	41	1	1.335		
5	1	2.89			42	4	1.307		
6	6	2.84		240	43	1	1.295		
7	3	2.77			44	1	1.284		
8	4	(2.70)	2.445		45	1	1.277		
9	1	2.646			46	4p	1.270		
10	4	2.575			47	4	1.242		
11	10	2.444		2.04	48	2	1.238		
12	2	2.389			49	2	1.215		
13	5	2.346			50	2	1.208		
14	4p	(2.221)	2.013		51	3	1.186		
15	2	2.157			52	3	1.173		
16	4	2.127		260	53	2	1.165		
17	1	2.063			54	3	1.149		
18	10	2.016		404.252	55	1	1.140		
19	1	1.952			56	1	1.134		
20	1	1.916			57	2p	1.117		
21	4	1.897			58	1	1.111		
22	1	1.856			59	2	1.107		
23	2	1.825			60	1	1.092		
24	2	1.799			61	1	1.085		
25	2	1.760			62	3p	1.065		
26	3p	1.704			63	2	1.057		
27	2p	1.629			64	1	1.054		
28	4	(1.588)	1.439		65	1	1.050		
29	3	(1.565)	1.418		66	2	1.047		
30	4	1.552			67	2	1.044		
31	4	1.540			68	2	1.034		
32	2	1.528		600	69	2	1.032		
33	3p	1.486			70	1	1.028		
34	10	1.437		0.10.0	71	1	1.022		
35	9	1.420			72	2	1.015		
36	5	1.409		404	73	7	1.013		$808\alpha_1$
37	1	1.380			74	3	1.013		$808\alpha_2$

in this section; pleochroism: pale-green along γ , colorless along α . The longitudinal hachures along the crystal faces, similar to those of tourmaline, are characteristic of prismatic. The prismatic cleavage is perfect. Hardness is 7. The mineral is biaxial. Elongation is negative. The angle of the optical axes $2V = 20^\circ \pm 2^\circ$ (along two axes). Refractive indices: $\alpha = 1.696$; $\gamma = 1.680$. Birefringence $\gamma - \alpha = 0.016$ (computed). Like the sapphirine, the prismatic is replaced by microcline, its grains being corroded by microcline and forming

typical archipelago structures (fig. 7).

It is worth noting that such alumina-bearing minerals as sapphirine, sillimanite and biotite are almost completely absent in the immediate vicinity of the prismatic porphyroblasts. Their constituent elements are likely to have been used in the formation of the prismatic.

In the macroscopic specimen the prismatic resembles both tourmaline and pyroxene; in thin section it resembles andalusite.

TABLE 6. Spectrum analyses of minerals*

Minerals Elments	Phlogopite	Deep pink corundum	Light gray corundum	Sapphirine	Prismatine
Si	≥10	0.1–1.0	3–10	≥10	≥10
Al	≥10	>10	≥10	≥10	≥10
Mg	>10	0.01–0.1	0.1–0.3	≥10	≥10
Fe	3–10	0.1–1.0	0.1–0.3	1–3	3–10
Mn	0.01–0.03	0.01–0.1	0.001–0.003	0.01–0.03	0.01–0.03
Ni	0.1–0.3	—	0.001–0.003	0.01–0.03	0.03–0.1
Co	0.01–0.03	—	—	0.001–0.003	0.003–0.01
Ti	0.1–0.3	0.01–0.1	—	—	0.001–0.01
V	0.01–0.03	—	0.001–0.003	0.003–0.01	0.01–0.03
Cr	0.03–0.1	1.0–10	~0.01	~0.01	0.03–0.1
Cu	—	<0.001	<<0.001	<0.001	~0.001
Ga	—	~0.003	0.003–0.01	0.003–0.01	~0.003
Sr	—	~0.03	—	—	—
Ba	~0.03	—	—	—	—
Na	0.1–0.3	—	—	~0.1	~0.1
Li	—	—	—	—	0.01–0.03

*The spectrum analyses were made in the VSEGEI Laboratory. The analysis of light gray corundum, phlogopite and sapphirine was carried out by Ye. Ya. Smirnova, that of pink corundum by O.G. Kvyatkovskaya; analysis of prismatine is based on data by N.A. Kuryleva.



FIGURE 7. Shape of prismatine grains (1) and replacement of microcline (2). Without analyzer. Magnification 12×8.

To characterize the chemical composition of the prismatine, Table 6 gives the spectrum analysis of the mineral. Here, as in the other minerals described earlier, the admixture of Ni, Co and Cr is worth noting.

Prismatine is very rarely encountered, and is usually classified in the group of magnesia aluminoborosilicates (Winchell and Winchell, 1953). It represents a variety of kornerupine, from which it differs by the presence of the (NaH) group, which replaces Mg.

Prismatine first discovered in the Bug region by N. A. Kuryleva (verbal communication). Our data confirm her findings.

Microcline with a distinct lattice is a typical mineral of subzones IV, V and VI, but was already found in subzone I. In the serpentinite (subzone I, relict area in subzone V) there appear small microcline grains, 0.1 mm in size, with wedge-shaped teeth in the contours. In addition, relatively large porphyroblasts with denticular contours (see fig. 3) up to 1.5 mm in size are also formed here.

When microcline replaces the antigorite groundmass, a fine laminar micaceous mineral first develops along the antigorite and indistinguishable from the latter. Moreover, as we noted above, a sapphirine rim is formed around the spinel contained in the rock. In subzones IV, V and VI, the microcline is usually found in

bound, isometric, large or small grains which corrode the sapphirine, sillimanite and prismaticine (see figs. 4, 6, 7, 9). It should be noted that pseudomorphic microcline forms after sillimanite, retaining the outer shape of the sillimanite grains, and that it replaces biotite.

ALTERATION OF THE MINERALS AND CHEMICAL COMPOSITION OF THE ROCKS

On the basis of the preceding statements it is possible to establish two successively alternating stages in the alteration of the pyroxenite. Serpentization and carbonatization belong to the first stage; they are the ordinary phenomena associated with postmagmatic activity during the formation of ultrabasic intrusions. The second stage comprises all those alterations which have led to the formation of the metasomatic zonality described above: anorthitization, phlogopitization, formation of corundum, sapphirine, sillimanite, prismaticine and microcline. These phenomena are due to granitization, which is widespread in this region.

Let us analyze the alterations of the minerals occurring during the second stage. As seen from factual data, most of the minerals of each subzone are unstable: some are replaced by others with a tendency toward replacement of all of them by microcline, i.e., toward the formation of a monomineralic rock. Minerals with a chemical affinity and occurring simultaneously in several subzones are interconnected by a successive replacement or by some variation in their chemical composition, as seen on the diagram in Figure 8.

As an example, let us take the behavior of minerals containing large amounts of magnesium and iron. The antigorite and diopside of subzone I are replaced by phlogopite, while the diopside is replaced by anorthite as well. Phlogopite occasionally varies its composition and is altered to biotite, by which it is sometimes replaced quite abruptly. In the further course of the process the biotite is replaced by microcline; i.e., there is first a removal of calcium, then of magnesium, and subsequently of iron, as well as an addition of potassium, silica and, apparently, alumina.

In magnesium- and iron-bearing minerals containing large amounts of alumina, the alterations start with spinel. This is replaced by sapphirine; sapphirine is probably replaced by sillimanite; sapphirine is apparently replaced by prismaticine; sillimanite, sapphirine and prismaticine are replaced by microcline.

Comparison of the formulas below for the successively replaced minerals shows that during the process described above, there is a loss of iron and magnesium, and an addition of silica, potassium and boron.

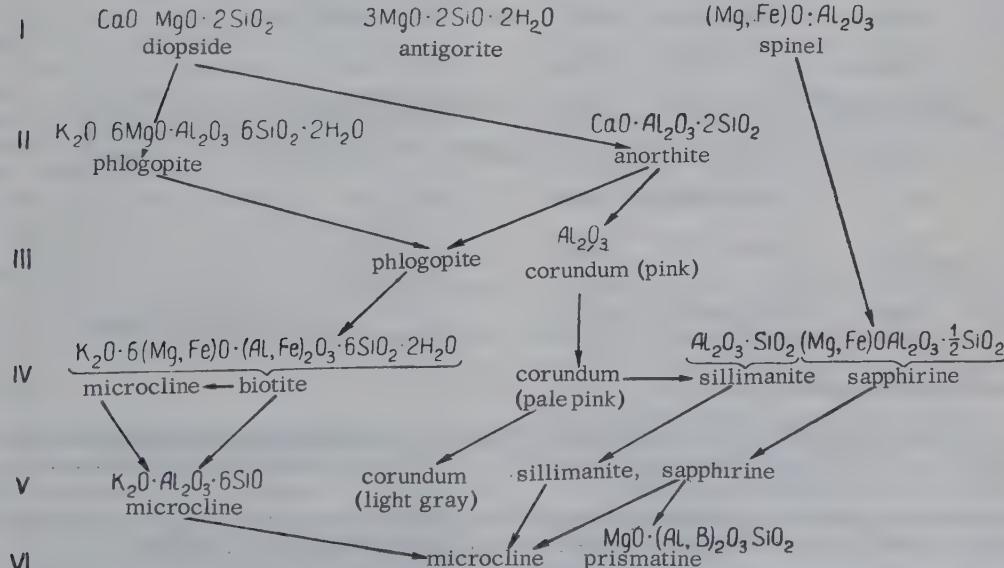
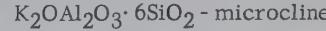
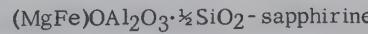


FIGURE 8. Mineral replacement and alteration diagram. The Roman numerals indicate the subzones.

In the case of alumina-bearing minerals the following alterations have been established: dark pink corundum is likely to replace anorthite. In the subsequent zones the color of corundum becomes lighter and changes to light gray, apparently because of its loss of iron, magnesium and chromium. Corundum is replaced by sillimanite, and the latter by microcline. Thus here too, we notice first the loss of calcium, then of iron, magnesium and chromium, and the addition of silica and potassium.

The observed alterations are evidence that calcium-, iron- and magnesium-bearing minerals are replaced by potassium-, silica- and alumina-bearing minerals; i.e., that the second

stage of alteration is characterized by an addition of K, Si, B and probably Al, connected with granitization.

By observing the replacement of minerals, the qualitative aspect of the process becomes evident.:

Let us now follow the quantitative alterations by comparing the chemical composition of the various zones. To this end we analyzed three types of rocks. The results of the analyses are shown in Table 7, which, in addition to percent by weight, also shows the molecular numbers (1a, 2a, 3a) and percentages (1b, 2b, 3b) [calculated to 100 percent? - G. F.].

TABLE 7. Chemical composition of rocks in subzones I, II and IV

Oxides	1	2	3	1a	2a	3a	1b	2b	3b
SiO ₂	18.97	38.62	52.00	0316	0643	0866	15.65	38.53	59.52
TiO ₂	—	0.67	0.15	—	0009	0002	—	0.54	0.14
Al ₂ O ₃	6.85	24.38	29.30	0067	0239	0278	3.32	14.32	19.11
Fe ₂ O ₃	2.78	1.55	0.92	0017	0009	0006	0.84	0.54	0.41
FeO	4.15	4.85	1.38	0058	0067	0019	2.87	4.02	1.30
MnO	0.44	0.21	0.03	0006	0003	—	0.30	0.18	—
MgO	15.75	13.17	5.22	0390	0326	0129	19.33	19.53	8.87
CaO	24.36	5.14	0.41	0434	0092	0007	21.51	5.51	0.48
Na ₂ O	0.12	0.12	0.15	0002	0002	0003	0.10	0.12	0.21
K ₂ O	0.64	7.42	9.37	0007	0079	0100	0.35	4.73	6.87
H ₂ O	1.06	0.38	0.12	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ignition loss	4.70	3.61	0.68	0261	0200	0038	12.93	11.98	2.61
CO ₂	20.26	—	0.30	0460	—	0007	22.79	—	0.48
NiO	0.05	0035*	traces	—	—	—	—	—	—
CO [CoO?]	traces	0004*	0.003	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	100.13	100.15	100.033				100.00	100.00	100.00

*Decimal point not specified - G. F.

1. Carbonatized, serpentinized pyroxenite from subzone I. Mineral composition: diopside, 41 percent; serpentine, 26 percent; calcite, 23 percent; spinel, 9 percent; small quantities of olivine and phlogopite. Analysis by M. T. Selyutina.
2. Anorthite-phlogopite-bearing rocks from subzone III. Mineral composition: phlogopite, about 60 percent; anorthite, about 38 percent; some corundum. Analysis by L. G. Potepalova.
3. Corundum-sillimanite-sapphirine-microcline rocks from subzone V. Mineral composition: microcline, 77 percent; sapphirine, 14 percent; sillimanite, 4 percent; biotite, 3 percent; some corundum and spinel. Analysis by M. T. Selyutina.

Variation curves (fig. 9) are plotted on the basis of the data from the chemical analyses.

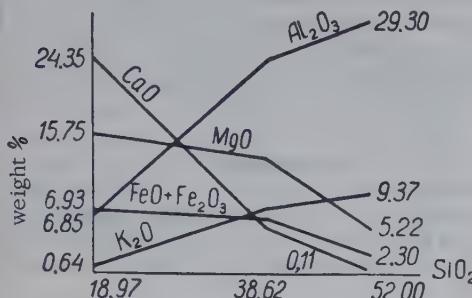


FIGURE 9. Variation curves

The content of silica in percent by weight, for the rocks of subzones I, III and V, is marked on the abscissa, and that of all the remaining oxides in percent by weight is marked on the ordinate. Thus each curve characterizes the quantitative variation in the content of the various oxides in transition from one subzone to another.

Comparison of the chemical analyses (see table 7) and the diagram (fig. 9) show that when altered pyroxenite (subzone I) grades into a corundum-sillimanite-sapphirine-microcline rock the contents of K, Si and Al increase and those of Ca, Mg and Fe decrease. These data correspond to the alteration found to take place in the replacement of the minerals. The admixtures of Ni and Co in the rocks of subzones III and V, and of Ni, Co and Cr in the minerals of subzones III, IV, V and VI are also evidence of the genetic relationship between the metasomatic subzones and the ultrabasic rocks.

D. S. Korzhinsky (1953) explains the formation of the metasomatic zones and the tendency toward a monomineralic rock as follows: in the most highly altered zone the rock composition is in equilibrium with the incoming solution and depends solely on the concentration of components in the solution, and not on the original composition of the altered rock. The composition of the more remote rocks reflects the result of interaction between the rocks and incoming solution. During the transition from unaltered to more altered rocks the number of completely volatile components increases, while that of the inert components decreases. As a result, the number of minerals in the zone is reduced to the point of forming a monomineralic rock.

All this shows that the sapphirine-microcline rocks of the Bug region were formed in the course of metasomatic alteration of a pyroxenite by solutions introducing K, Si, B and probably Al, with the formation of metasomatic zones and of minerals successively replacing each other. The sources of these elements could hardly be the cordierite-quartziferous gneiss rocks surrounding the drill hole, since these are

poor in potassium.

CONCEPTIONS OF THE GENESIS OF THE SAPPHIRINE-BEARING ROCKS

The distribution of sapphirine-bearing rocks throughout the world is quite limited, and there are few references to them in the literature. It is known from the papers published on this subject that these rocks are associated with Precambrian formations, including charnockites, in such regions as the Anabar shield, Dangin (Western Australia), Greenland, Southeastern India, etc.

In Greenland the sapphirine-bearing rocks were studied by H. Ramberg (1948). The region consists of Precambrian dioritic and quartz-dioritic gneisses related to the charnockites, and enclosing bodies of metamorphosed basic and ultrabasic rocks. According to the author, these had originally been pyroxenites and other ultrabasic and gabbroic igneous rocks.

It is with these metamorphosed formations that the sapphirine and related minerals (spinel, phlogopite, plagioclase) are associated. As a rule, sapphirine forms rims around the spinel, together with bronzite; in addition, it was occasionally also found without spinel.

According to H. Ramberg, the sapphirine-bearing rocks arose as follows: all the formations mentioned above were subjected to plutonic metamorphism, in the course of which there was extensive metamorphic differentiation, involving the migration of elements and introduction of such components as Si and K into the basic rocks from acidic ones, while Fe, Mg and Ca were added to the latter. The author holds that although sapphirine is stable even within a considerable variation in the chemical composition of the rocks, yet its development is limited to a narrow range of temperatures and pressures between the granulite and amphibolite facies. This explains the fact that sapphirine is a fairly rare mineral. Thus it may serve as a mineralogic thermometer.

The sapphirine-bearing rocks of Western Australia (Dangin region) were investigated by R. T. Prider (1945). This region is composed of Precambrian hypersthene-bearing granite-gneisses (charnockite) enclosing xenoliths of ultrabasic and basic rocks modified into hornblende hyperstheneites, garnet-cordierite-hypersthene rocks and vermiculite schists. Sapphirine was found in association with vermiculite rocks. According to Prider, the genesis of the sapphirine-bearing rocks of Western Australia is the following: under the action of a granitic magma introducing K, Al and SiO₂, the spinel-bearing hyperstheneites were first altered to mica schists and then to feldspar schists with mica and sapphirine.

T. Walker and W. H. Collins (1907) believe that the sapphirine-bearing rocks of the Vizagapatam District (India) were formed through the assimilation of the enclosing sillimanite schists by the charnockite magma.

The sapphirine-bearing rocks at Cortlandt (North America) are described by G. Friedman (1952). Here there are widespread occurrences of peridotite, pyroxenite, norite and diorite, which have been intruded into quartz-mica schists. Corundum-spinel-titano-magnetite rocks are associated with the norite and its contact with the schists. Where these rocks are intersected by quartz veins, reaction rims of garnet, sillimanite, cordierite and sapphirine form around them. The outer zone of the quartz veins is formed by the sapphirine rims. Friedman believes the sapphirine is a replacement product of spinel, which is formed in the norite under the action of silica introduced into it, as well as in enclosing schists at their contact with norites by the reaction between magnesium and iron, removed from the norites, and the schist minerals.

The sapphirine-bearing rocks of the Anabar shield are known through the paper by B. N. Rozhkov, G. G. Moor, and B. V. Tkachenko (1936). The authors, however, do not examine in detail the problems relating to the genesis of these rocks. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the geology of this region is very similar to that of the Bug region. The Anabar shield is composed of Precambrian gneisses, including pyroxene-plagioclase gneiss, and charnockite enclosing bodies of basic and ultrabasic rocks.

In conclusion it should be noted that the formation of aluminous minerals from basic rocks (norites) was also observed in younger formations, but these are not characterized by either sapphirine or prismatic. For example, V. S. Sobolev (1947) has described zonal formations developed in granite from norite xenoliths of the Korosten complex (Ukrainian crystalline massif) under the action of these granites. The outer zone of these formations is mainly cordierite-spinel, while sillimanite predominates in the interior.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Sapphirine-bearing rocks are found in Precambrian formations in association with charnockite.

2. In the Bug region, the formation of sapphirine-bearing rocks parallels the formation of charnockites and is one of the phenomena of regional granitization.

3. Sillimanite-sapphirine-corundum-prismatic-microcline rocks were formed by meta-

somatic replacement of altered pyroxenite under the action of solutions introducing K, Si, B and probably Al, and removing Ca, Mg, and Fe, with the formation of a metasomatic zonality and successive replacement and alteration of the minerals, and a tendency toward the formation of a monomineralic microcline rock.

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-- Managing Editor

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RECENT TRANSLATIONS IN GEOLOGY

Those who follow foreign scientific literature should make a point of looking up NLL Translations, formerly the LLU Translations Bulletin. This British counterpart of the Department of Commerce's Technical Translations changes its name with the January 1961 issue (vol. 3, no. 1), reflecting a change in title of its parent institution from Lending Library Unit to National Lending Library for Science and Technology. With the change in name comes a change in format to include survey-type articles and translations.

Of particular interest to geologists is "The Present State of Petroleum Chemistry and Technology in China", on page 79 of the February issue (vol. 3, no. 2), translated from Chzhan Da-yui [Institute of Petroleum of the Academy of Sciences of the Chinese People's Republic], previously appearing in the Russian journal, Khimiya i tekhnologiya topliva i masel, 1960, no. 4, pp. 66-69. The front section of each issue of NLL-Translations also includes capsule reports by western scientists of Soviet conferences and visits to Soviet installations.

Publication of NLL Translations is part of the broad scientific encouragement program of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, whose program is of a slightly different scope from that of our National Science Foundation. As a D. S. I. R. official phrased it, "It happens, owing to the different responsibilities of the National Science Foundation and the D. S. I. R., that one can regard American cover-to-cover translations as dealing primarily with pure science whilst the British translations are more concerned with technology. This means that the United Kingdom is primarily responsible for journals in the engineering field, a field in which the Russians excel and, incidentally, one in which there is a dearth of high grade Western language literature."

D. S. I. R. aims to publish the translations within two or three months of receipt of the Russian originals.

Inquiries regarding single or serial translations should be addressed to the D. S. I. R. Lending Library Unit, 20 Chester Terrace, London N. W. 1. Free lists of cover-to-cover translations of periodicals, irregular serials, and books from Russia and current periodicals from China are available on request. Subscription or single copy orders for NLL Translations should be addressed to Her Majesty's Printing Office, P. O. Box 569, London S. E. 1, England.

The current list of Recent Translations in Geology includes items from the first three issues of NLL Translations (vol. 3, nos. 1, 2, and 3).

Other sources for the current list are:

Associated Technical Services, Bulletins nos. 3W and 2M.

Columbia Technical Translations, Tables of Contents, Bulletin (Izvestiya), AN SSSR, physics series, v. 23, nos. 2, 3 and 7.

Technical Translations, v. 5, no. 2.

Translations under the PL-480 Program, List no. 4 (final list; henceforth, all listings will be made initially in Technical Translations).

Not included in the subsequent list are items occurring in the following Soviet journals, which are translated cover-to-cover and generally contain articles of interest to geologists:

Atomic Energy, published by Consultants Bureau.

Bulletin (Izvestiya) of the Academy of Sciences U. S. S. R., Geophysics Series, published by the American Geophysical Union.

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chemistry, geology, geophysics, hydrogeology, mineralogy, paleontology, petrography, lithology and permafrost), published by the American Geological Institute.

Geochemistry, published by the Geochemical Society.

Geodesy and Cartography, published by the American Geophysical Union.

Izvestiya of the Academy of Sciences of the U. S. S. R., Geologic Series, published by the American Geological Institute.

Petroleum Geology, published by the Review of Russian Geology.

Problems of the North, published by the National Research Council of Canada.

Soil Science, published by the American Institute of Biological Sciences.

Soviet Geography, selected translations and reviews published by the American Geographic Society.

Soviet Physics: Crystallography, published by

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the American Institute of Physics.

Geologists and translators are invited to submit titles which have not been cited by services from which we compile these lists. The submittal of a copy of the translation itself will be construed as an offer for IGR to publish, take copies available at cost of reproduction and/or consign it to a major translations repository at our discretion. Suggestions for improving this service are welcome.

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